w/r

WELFARE in REVIEW

March-April 1972
volume 10 number 2

Research Utilization In Program Design

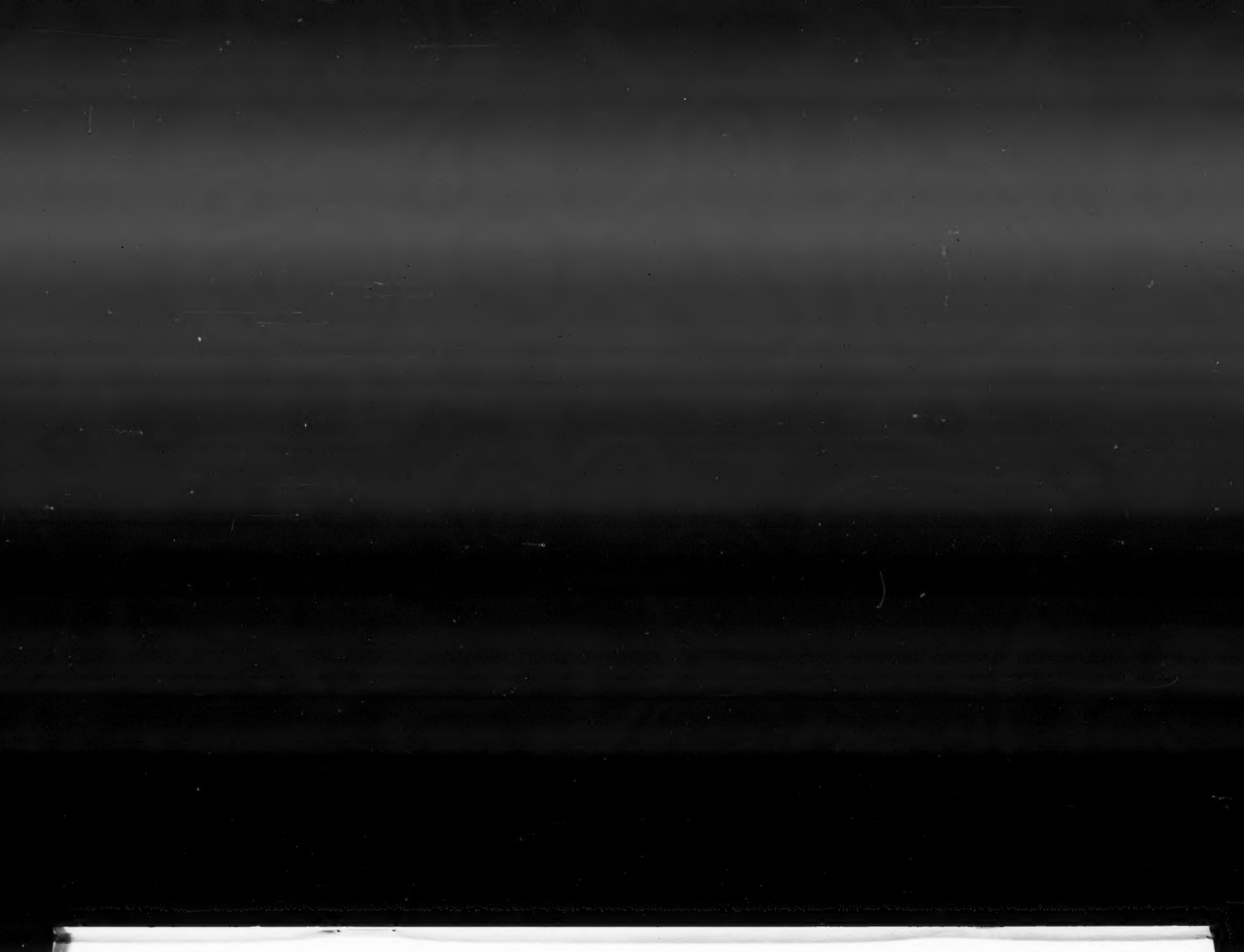
Nutrition Services for the Elderly

Demonstration Projects In Public Assistance

Fiscal Year 1971

U.S.
DEPARTMENT
OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION,
AND WELFARE

Social
and
Rehabilitation
Service



U.S.
DEPARTMENT
OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION,
AND WELFARE

Social
and
Rehabilitation
Service

WELFARE in REVIEW

March-April 1972

IN THIS ISSUE

Research Utilization In Program Design
A University Center's Role In Service Delivery Innovation 1
Gregory M. St. L. O'Brien
Nutrition Services for the Elderly
A Demonstration Project 11
Douglas Holmes
Demonstration Projects In Public Assistance
Fiscal Year 1971 17
Jean D. LeMasurier
Research Notes
Changes in AFDC, 1969-71 28
Betty Burnside
The Status of Communitywide Social Data Banks 32
Charles Zastrow
Undergraduate Training of AFDC Caseworkers 36
Nelson L. LeRay and James R. Bowring
Book Notes
The Journalist As Social Crusader 40
Kathryn Close
Does Professional Training Matter? 43
Evelyn E. Lett
New Publications 45

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
ELLIOT L. RICHARDSON, Secretary
SOCIAL AND REHABILITATION SERVICE
John D. Twiname, Administrator
Ward F. Porter, Chief
Intramural Research Division
Catherine P. Williams, Editor
Ellen W. Johnson
Editorial Assistant

Published bimonthly by the Office of the Administrator, Social and Rehabilitation Service.

Use of funds for printing was approved by the Bureau of the Budget, April 17, 1969. Contents not copyrighted.

For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. Price $1.75 a year; $2.25 for foreign mailing; single copy, 35 cents.

Research Utilization in Program Design

A University Center's Role in Service Delivery Innovation

Gregory M. St. L. O'Brien

Practitioners and researchers alike are under increased public pressure to develop means for utilizing research-based knowledge in the design of programs to meet a variety of human needs. The increasing cost of services, number of persons in need of services, and emphasis on preventive measures have spurred the men and women providing health, rehabilitation, social, mental health, and manpower services to use as fully as possible available information on program design and organizational innovation.

Federal agencies are supporting new methods of translating research findings into usable practice aids. The Federal movement toward research utilization in rehabilitation and social service is exemplified in such actions as these: support for the development of research utilization specialists in 10 States,[1] holding conferences from time to time in which practitioners and researchers share insight and problems,[2 3] and the publication of abstracts and summaries of research with implications for practice. In both physical and mental health services, the use of research in program planning is also of great concern.[4] Regional and State agencies have increased their efforts to make available the technical assistance resources organizations and practitioners need to pursue new directions in service delivery.

Dr. O'Brien is Director of the Human Services Design Laboratory, School of Applied Social Sciences, Case Western Reserve University.

The Laboratory is supported, in part, by a grant (No. 20-0-25009/5-03) from the Social and Rehabilitation Service, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

A number of suggestions have recently been advanced to make the processes of research application and the diffusion of innovative programs easier. Engstrom,[5] citing Glaser and Wolfensburger, points to the need for "mutually defined and accepted objectives." Havelock,[6] drawing from the literature on planned change and organizational development, has conceptualized the need for developing "temporary systems—involving both researcher and practitioner in the process of formulating research objectives and sharing insights."

At the levels of city and State, these suggestions take on particular importance, given their many problems in social service delivery. My purpose in this article is to discuss the experience of a university-based applied research and technical assistance center in developing research utilization methods for use at community and State organizational levels.

The Human Services Design Laboratory

In 1969 the faculty of the School of Applied Social Sciences (SASS) of Case Western Reserve University voted to establish an institutional component with these objectives:

To engage in applied research and technical assistance concerning current and emerging problems in human services design and delivery.

To provide a training ground in applied research for students in the School and to develop pertinent curricular materials.

To provide a setting for faculty members to conduct research and to provide technical assistance in their fields.

The Human Services Design Laboratory was developed in response to this commitment. The project activity fields on which the Laboratory has centered its energy parallel, in large measure, the fields of concentration in the SASS master's degree curriculum: health, human development, and urban development and planning. The fields of the Laboratory's 34 expert faculty and technical staff members include social work, psychology, operations research, sociology, nursing, health service administration, education, economics, information systems, science, gerontology, public administration, and organizational behavior.

To meet our first purpose—that of providing problem-solving assistance in dealing with current and emerging human services problems through applied research—we have gained new, varied, and useful perspectives on research utilization, particularly at the levels of metropolitan and State organizations. Our perspectives are built on the concepts of ways to make research application easier advanced by Havelock, Engstrom, and Glaser.

The Laboratory acts as a resource in two ways to administrators and practitioners seeking solutions to service design and delivery problems. First, it conducts the applied research needed to improve program design and service delivery, in conjunction with community agencies and organizations. Often service delivery organizations, when faced with problems of setting goals, goal implementation, or self-assessment, will seek the help of the Laboratory in identifying solutions. Second, members of the Laboratory will initiate, with other organizations, the development of joint projects to test ways of delivering a particular service or set of services. Whether the initiation of this collaborative effort comes from an agency or from the Laboratory, it is important that both participate in the effort and that they both accept a common definition of the problems.

Collaborative temporary systems

Much of the literature on planned system change has emphasized the importance of the relationships between the focal organization and outside resources—"change agents"—that an organization uses in the process of change.[7] Chin[8] and others[9] have emphasized intersystems theory as a means for conceptualizing the linkages between change agent and practitioner. An intersystems approach identifies aspects of linkage across organizational boundaries and elaborates on the points of system interdependence through which the change process can be eased. And it usually identifies the domain for interaction between the change agent and the operating organization.

Applying concepts from the theory of planned change to research utilization, Havelock[10] has stressed the development of temporary systems. In research utilization, temporary systems represent the coming together of researchers and practitioners to formulate problems and apply research findings. Like the intersystem method, Havelock's perspective emphasizes the linkages and interdependencies that should exist between the researcher and the practitioner in applied research. By identifying the practitioner-researcher relationship as a separate but temporary system, Havelock is also stressing the need for the relationship to set up boundaries around aspects of organizational functioning to which it relates.

In approaching an application-focused project with an agency or community organization, the Laboratory seeks to develop a temporary system in which pertinent aspects of organizational interdependence are also specified to help limit the domain of the research application relationship. The emphasis on identifying points of organizational autonomy builds on the intersystem framework. Chin[11] and others[12] have repeatedly emphasized that the development of an imbalance in organizational dependencies may, at times, reduce the level of trust between the collaborating agencies. By acknowledging the fundamental autonomy of the participants in the practitioner-researcher relationship, a better temporary system may be developed.

In our search to develop a collaborative temporary system with members of the practitioner organizations (agencies) with whom we work, we have identified six fruitful rules for such a relationship. These six serve as guidelines in formulating the relationship and the general methods of operating the system.

Common problem definition and setting of relationship boundaries. One of the first elements in developing a collaborative temporary system is, of course, the "mutually defined and accepted objectives"[13] of the relationship. The central point is a definition of the focal problem for research accepted by all participants. To keep the research effort focused on the practitioner's true and recognized needs, a common definition must be accepted from the beginning of the relationship and must be repeatedly reexamined and refined as available information increases. The Chicago

Jewish Vocational Services, in illustrating the research utilization process in rehabilitation services, has pointed out that it is not sufficient for the researchers to enter the relationship, set a particular definition with the client group, and then formulate specific questions and implement research independent of the practitioner group.[14] As the research process continues through the stages of exploration, instrumentation, and data analysis, the definition of the problem under research must be ever more precisely defined. It is important that both researcher and practitioner share in changing and refining definitions throughout the research project.

It is imperative that the common definition includes expected outcomes as well as problems. Most practitioners are unfamiliar with applying research technology to human service problems, particularly at the operating-agency level. Usually their expectations are unclear as to just how much or how little research can benefit or effect problem-solving.

The literature in the field of planned change is full of studies on resistance to change and of overcoming such resistance. Less attention has been paid to the problem of overreadiness or premature readiness to change, one that can also be met in research application.

When an organization comes to a university center such as the Laboratory or other outside resource (say, consultants) for help concerning a particular service delivery problem, the pressure toward change may often result in too great a dependence on the outsiders. Organizations are often willing to let outside experts make decisions and set priorities, though these tasks are rightly theirs. In such a framework research findings, whether they offer new practice procedures, tools, or organizational directions, may be too readily taken on as immediately available panaceas.

In response to the possibility of overreadiness to change, the Laboratory usually sets forth the limited legitimate domain of the research and change efforts in which the particular collaborative temporary system shall be engaged. These limits, like the definition of the problems and objectives, must constantly be reexamined by practitioner and researcher alike. Limits of influence (that is, limits on fields of legitimate interaction) must be identified when the relationship starts so that a solvable problem can be isolated and an achievable objective set.

Shared responsibility and joint contributions of resources. Havelock,[15] in his discussion of the temporary system concept, stressed the need to share information, problems, and decisions among colleagues from different practice and research backgrounds. When a temporary system is developing to promote organizational innovation and problem-solving, the sharing of responsibility, tasks, and decisions among all participants in the process is crucial. When each contributes organizational resources to the effort, the utilization process is greatly eased. When adequate funds are provided by an outside source for an agency-Laboratory research application effort, we seek other kinds of support from the agency and the Laboratory to effect greater involvement in the project. Committing one's own resources to the effort strengthens interest in what may be a lengthy process of research, assessment, decisionmaking, change, and reassessment. Where both sides willingly readjust organizational priorities to contribute to the research application effort, the processes of full use of research findings and consequent organizational innovation have occurred. In agency-Laboratory research application projects where the contribution of organizational resources seemed unnecessary (or were not made for other reasons), the processes of research implementation have been slow and more difficult, if not impossible.

Although the contribution of organizational resources may be very small, such contributions foster a commitment from each participating organization to continue the research application project to successful completion. Both sides may contribute resources in the early stages of defining an initial problem, specifying expected outcomes, and developing an appropriate methodology for implementation. Such contributions cement the commitment to the research application process. However, a continuing commitment of organizational resources during project implementation helps insure continued support for the research endeavor.

Research application teams. Unless the organizations involved in a change effort are small and, therefore, participation of all its members is possible, the operations of the collaborative temporary system will be carried out by small groups of persons. Two identifiable groups that become involved in the research application process are the *research team* and the *application management team.* In agency-Laboratory collaborations the involvement of agency members in the research team (the Laboratory's speciality) and of the Laboratory staff in the processes of application management (the agency's specialty) is sought.

The *research team* has primary responsibility for tasks such as the design and implementation of

research methods and the analysis and initial reporting of findings (to the application management group and the larger agency). Whenever possible, it includes at least one agency member, who shares responsibility for the research team's full range of activities, including the technical processes of instrument design, data collection, and analysis of data for presentation. Thus he helps insure that the research team's activities keep to the agency's questions. And, as a result of his involvement with the research team, he may interpret the research findings and conclusions to his agency.

The Laboratory's team members are researchers from a variety of academic fields and experts in the particular field of practice under investigation. Additional consultants and technical assistance from other Laboratory associates supplement team efforts.

The *application management team* is composed of the administrative staff plus key board and staff members from the participating agency and organizational development specialists from the Laboratory as well as members of the research team. They represent the whole temporary system of persons concerned with formulating and supervising the research team's activities, interpreting, with the research team, findings and presenting the research efforts to the whole organization. For different persons on the application management team, the commitment of time may be as little as a few hours spent attending a meeting or two or it may require continual involvement in the research and application processes. A broad core group to supervise the entire process of research, interpretation, decisionmaking, and implementation is central to a successful research application effort.

The identification of separate but interrelated (and intermixed) groups for the research and application processes has been very helpful to the Laboratory's research utilization. Though the structure may appear elaborate, it is often little more than the crystalization of the need to involve a range of specialists in any research application effort. By knowing the appropriate membership of these two teams in any given setting, the Laboratory can avoid having to explain (after-the-fact) the purposes and procedures of the research activity to enlist involvement at a later time and, can, thus, reduce resistance to change and resolve certain communication problems.

Presentation of findings. Until a research project has been completed and the data analyzed, the specific implications for action are unknown. Research may indicate that the adoption of a particular new practice is or is not called for in a particular agency. Often, however, when a complex problem in service delivery is examined, research must assist in identifying viable alternatives for the agency and their probable implications. In fact, if the Laboratory has a preferred mode for the presentation of findings and implications in an application-oriented project, the presentation of alternatives for viable decisionmaking and consequent outcome for the organization is clearly it. The rationale for presenting alternative actions from which an organization may choose its course of action stems from Chin's discussion of intersystem relations in planned change.[16] Decisions that by the nature of organizational autonomy should be made by the operating agency (its staff, board, and constituents) can be unnecessarily influenced by the types of recommendations the research team or the application management team makes. The course of action to which the research points may, indeed, be the best course (or at least a good course) of action for the organization to take. However, the decision must be made by the agency, for it must bear the consequences. Although other alternatives may exist, they may be overlooked if only one viable course is identified or singled out by the research team. Presentation of a range of choices, often affecting different organizational levels, helps clarify the organizational choices and their consequences.

Organizational development and consultation activities. The particular set of alternatives and consequences presented to an organization as a result of a research application project may be fairly easy to deal with. Whether to try a particular technique with a larger group of clients, to revise current patterns of referral, or to modify agency recordkeeping procedures are straightforward questions. Often, however, the questions before an applied research project are more complex: for instance, whether an agency's goals are appropriate to community needs, its structure consistent with its goals, or its decisionmaking processes responsive to community needs.

When a complex question is before an agency, technical assistance going beyond the particular empirical base of information from the research may be needed. The Laboratory must be sensitive to the difficulties of dealing with questions of organizational goals and of community obligations, when such questions arise from a research application endeavor. In

setting up the application management team, we try to include Laboratory staff members with skill in the practice fields with which the agency deals as well as with organizational expertise to assist the agency in going through the processes of organizational modification.

The role of the organizational consultant is to help the agency separate and deal effectively with the various questions raised by the findings of a research application project. Baker and others[17] have pointed to the difficulties of initiating new programs in one sector of a service delivery organization without reference to broader questions of all organizational decisions that might be effected.

Followup. After a research application endeavor is "complete" (that is, its initial objectives have been met), a period of review follows. The more complex the problem in an application endeavor, the more difficult it is to determine when the objectives have been met. Often the making of a key organizational decision (to modify specific practices or not to choose one or another organizational alternative, for instance) is now identified. Preparation of a final draft project report (usually taking from 30 to 60 days) provides an opportunity for reviewing the process and progress of the application effort and for identifying questions, yet to be resolved, raised by the research.

The need to set up boundaries for the relationship in a collaborative temporary system have already been discussed. A followup review notes whether the research-based change has had harmful influences that go beyond these boundaries. This period gives the agency and the Laboratory an opportunity to assess, more objectively, the effect of the whole research application effort.

Although the six elements outlined above may be difficult to identify during the research application process, they do provide a perspective for the examination of the research application process. Consideration of each of these elements in the research project contributes a positive input to the collaborative endeavor.

Examples of the research application process

The following presentation of examples of recent research application efforts of the Human Services Design Laboratory should illustrate the function of the six elements described. One, that of a citizens' coordinating organization in a metropolitan area, clearly describes their application. As this case was completed almost a year ago, it is perhaps easier to identify turning points and elements in the relationship than it would have been when the project was just completed. The other two examples of Laboratory research application efforts will demonstrate the importance of the key elements in different contexts: one concerns a service integration project involving several partners and the other the testing of a Laboratory-initiated program model for use by various local groups. These three examples will illustrate agency-initiated, agency and Laboratory-initiated, and Laboratory-initiated research application efforts.

The Citizens' Coordinating Organization. The Citizens' Coordinating Organization (CCO) was established to serve as a coordinating, economic resource, and technical assistance vehicle to the various citizen participation activities in a large metropolitan area (the name is a pseudonym to maintain confidentiality). It had received funds from the local health and welfare council and other local voluntary sources.

During its first 2 years of operation, disagreements among board and staff members had led to the resignation of CCO's first executive, temporary resignation of some key board members, and a general breakdown of communication between board and staff. Its constituency (local neighborhood groups), staff members of the health and welfare council, the board, and CCO's staff members believed that a review of agency progress, management, and other issues was necessary. A review by the health and welfare council called for further research to clarify apparent difficulties in agency operation, decisions, and goals. Major questions of goal-setting, new program implementation, and efforts to obtain funds were to be held in abeyance during the review.

When the agency approached the Laboratory, outside local funds to conduct a small research project were available. A preliminary contract for a research application project was developed between the Laboratory and the agency. After informal discussions with staff and board members, members of the health and welfare council, and other interested persons, the commitment's focus was determined.

An initial list of questions drawn up for the research centered on these issues: the appropriateness and feasibility of organizational goals; supervision of agency staff members; money to operate local as opposed to citywide citizen participation groups;

methods of supporting local groups—by program or by organization; and board and staff roles.

These five issues served as major components of the research and the research application relationship. Questions of specific decisions about staff members (including the agency's search for a new executive) were defined as outside the relationship. It was determined that the specific findings would be presented as a list of alternative decisions on which the agency would act. It was apparent that the divisiveness among board and staff members would result in specific recommendations being too readily adopted as quick ways to end conflict. It was also apparent that should specific practice recommendations be adopted without a thorough examination of the fundamental aspects of organizational disagreement, any resolution of the agency's difficulties would be, at best, temporary and fragile.

The research team had three core members plus two temporary consultants from the Laboratory. Its director had training in organizational research and development. The second core member was an agency staff member who had recently joined CCO and was a person respected by board and staff alike. The third was a Laboratory technical associate with experience in research and social work practice. The consultants had long experience in neighborhood community organization work and in agency coordination. They monitored the progress of instrumentation and consultation activities.

Documents describing CCO's history were reviewed and informal interviews with key staff and board members were conducted. When a draft of specific questions had been drawn up and a tentative interview guide developed, presentations of the entire project were made to staff and board members separately. The presentations included the purpose of the project, the questions to be asked, the format for asking questions and presenting findings, confidentiality, and the limits of the research application relationship. Acceptance by both board and staff was obtained during the presentations. These meetings also identified possible modifications in the specific questions based on information both staff and board members believed they needed.

Final drafts of an interview guide and goal survey questionnaire were prepared and interviews (90 minutes each) were conducted with all agency board and staff members and with some board and staff members of local constituent groups. The guide dealt with perception of original goals as well as current ideal and operational goals; areas of legitimate activity; priorities and criteria for expenditures; and communication patterns, including committee structure and board-staff communication. Data were analyzed on the basis of board, staff, and community group responses.

The first presentation of research findings and implications, made during an all-day meeting with all board and staff members, concerned the full range of questions and issues raised by the research activity. Subsequent smaller meetings dealt with specific questions.

During the presentation of findings on questions of agency goals, staff and board groups showed less conflict over goal perception than had been expected. Each had regarded the position of the other as polarized in opposition. The change in attitude opened the door to a more relaxed examination of specific issues of agency practice and management.

Survey findings were presented for each of the five research fields and the organizational alternatives to which they pointed were discussed. During the discussion of each problem, reference was made to the need for a basic decision about the legitimacy and relative importance of the agency's two chief activities (local group support and citywide group support). Repeatedly, the need for the agency to develop a new statement of purpose or to reaffirm its original purpose was emphasized as important to every agency division.

The meetings served to clear the air of the erroneous assumptions board and staff members had made about each other's opinions. And they identified what central questions the agency had not yet addressed.

CCO's crucial application processes came through continuing reinterpretation of research findings during the following months. A small group (including the research team, two key board members, and key members of the administrative and program staff) met weekly for about 3 months to review the progress of various organization subcommittees as these issues dealt with the issues raised in the research report. Members of the research team sat with budget and allocation committees as they reviewed specific alternatives such as block funds and contract and contingency funds. In working with staff groups, research team members acted as technical resource persons on organizational design regarding questions of supervision and communication within the organization and between the coordinating agency and constituent groups. Repeatedly, committees and subgroups would try to reach a decision on a subquestion. At this level tentative decisions were reached for review by the board as a whole. In each case the resolution of

Our next to last issue . . . .
With the next issue, the May-June 1972, *Welfare in Review* will go to press for the last time. Beginning in July, the Social and Rehabilitation Service will publish a new journal, *Human Needs*. For information about this publication, see our inside back cover.

subissues could not be implemented because the fundamental issue of agency purpose had not been fully resolved.

Dealing with specific questions over a period of 3 months, however, helped the agency explore more fully the implications of the various alternatives. Had these specific questions not been attacked first, the organization could not have dealt fruitfully with fundamental questions.

About 3 months after the initial presentation of findings, two members of the research team sat as process consultants to a board meeting. With deadlines for allocating operating funds rapidly approaching and with frustration growing at an inability to resolve some of the specific alternative courses with which staff and committee groups had been dealing, the board was finally able to tackle the issues of fundamental agency purpose. Repeated process observations and clarification of the implications of specific alternative courses were made by the research team. Finally, the board reached a decision regarding its purpose. This decision, in turn, helped clarify which specific alternative courses the agency should take. From this point on the board and specific committees were able to implement specific alternatives.

The decision over purpose was identified by both the agency and the Laboratory as the end of the research application project. Both agencies kept up informal communication regarding agency progress while the final report was prepared. The presentation of the final report to the agency and the holding of a colloquium (attended by faculty members, students, and agency board and staff members) provided opportunities for review of the research application process and the identification of the various issues resolved and the new questions raised. After the conference the relationship between the Laboratory became more informal (marking the end of the temporary system for research application). The two agencies still communicate frequently, but communication is no longer focused on the completed project.

The example centered on CCO illustrates the application of the six elements of the research application process. The utility of the example stems from the time limit set on the relationship—especially the pressure to complete the effort in time for the agency to meet crucial deadlines.

Many research application efforts in the human services must, of necessity, take longer. But even when this is so, the concepts of a collaborative temporary system are still applicable. However, as the relationship enters different phases, different kinds of skill may be needed and different elements of the concept may be emphasized. The following examples of Laboratory efforts in research application illustrates types of long-term collaborative temporary system arrangements. They also illustrate how a research application center may take an active role in service delivery innovation.

The East Cleveland Human Services Center Project. The Laboratory is one of four agencies conducting research in the development and assessment of a new way to integrate the delivery of a wide range of human services. The city of East Cleveland, the Cuyahoga County Welfare Department, the Ohio Department of Public Welfare, and the Laboratory are developing and will implement an SRS-supported integrated service delivery project, the Human Services Center (HSC), in East Cleveland, a low and middle income suburb of Cleveland.

Each agency contributes time, energy, and resources. Many of the people involved in planning and developing the project come from the city and county agencies, as will the people who will eventually operate it. State technical assistance helped during the planning and early implementation stages. The Laboratory's efforts have focused primarily on assessing need and outcome and on the design of case management and monitoring systems.

The Laboratory's first role in the temporary system was to help the core group develop the model for the Center. Obtaining assessment information to be used as the basis for program design and for the documentation of program eligibility was one Laboratory function during the earliest phase of project development. The core planning team used data gained at this time to identify the delivery components and intersystems linkages needed to provide comprehensive service

delivery to East Cleveland. The need for information service, the mechanism for arranging agreements between Center and client, and the refinement of the case management concept are all aspects of the integrated service delivery model the core team developed, using, in part, information obtained from people living in the community about their needs.

As the HSC is implemented, the third phase of this research application relationship will begin. At this time management information and evaluation activities will provide feedback to the operation group about ways to increase effectiveness. Consequently, the research function will move from providing input to the beginning process of innovation to assessing the innovation's effectiveness. In this phase the research agent will give technical assistance to the operating agency—and the relationship will more closely resemble the relationship between the Laboratory and CCO.

The setting of objectives and the defining of boundaries are clearly more dynamic processes in the East Cleveland project than they were in the CCO. In each phase of the relationship with HSC, a different objective was defined. During "need assessment," the research team's technical assistance contributed greatly to the formulation of the basic program design. In HSC's development and operational phases, the Laboratory assisted in the development of mechanisms for assessing outcomes and in providing information for further planning and refinement of the general model. In essence the organizational development activities, followup, and subsequent consultation aspects of the research application relationship are integrated into the Laboratory's development of a management information and feedback system for and with HSC's staff.

A new phase in the research application relationships emerged as this project moved from the formative stage to program development and implementation. The composition of the temporary system and the core planning group changed as key staff members were added to HSC. The staff, as the operating agency, led the implementation of the concepts developed previously by the core planning group. Each agency continued its involvement. The Laboratory's involvement in this temporary system was increasingly focused on the design of management and information systems to provide information for program assessment as well as case monitoring. The whole Laboratory research team, representing the fields of social welfare, sociology, operations research, and management and information sciences, has worked closely with the core planning group in the design of a management information system that will contribute to the Center's operating effectiveness and planning functions. The research team's members are core members of the general HSC planning group, their role being to interpret research-based information and to apply it to the planning process.

The "Growing Up" Project

The previous two illustrations focused on two of the Laboratory's roles: helping an agency solve a problem and working with other organizations in a research, planning, and implementation effort. The Laboratory also has a third role: to start innovative efforts. In the following illustration, the initiative for change came from within the Laboratory and the implementation of the idea will be (and is being) carried out through local groups in settings representative of those to which the program would be generalized.

"Growing Up," as the project is called, represents a program model that seeks to provide a "focus around which community resources can be activated to reinforce self-esteem and other aspects of self-concept development on the part of minority youths." The model is based on the research and experience of Laboratory associates and the SASS faculty with services to young people from minority groups and with self-concept development.

The conceptual model for "Growing Up" rests on three essential ideas. First, the strength of the program comes from the fullest possible use of the young person's environment—his family, friends, community, and, often, school—as building blocks of strong self-concept. Second, the method must be inexpensive so that a community group, church, school, community center, or a small collection of community groups could sponsor, support, and implement it. Third, for the method to be applicable to a wide variety of local conditions and organizational sponsorship (and if it is to be used with members of different minority groups), the individual community must have considerable latitude to design a specific program within a general service plan.

To test the program model built on these three ideas, the Laboratory approached a number of local groups and community organizations in minority communities (in both urban and rural areas) to assess their interest in undertaking a local "Growing Up" project. Some groups are small informal coalitions, others represent public school systems, and still others repre-

sent spokesmen for minority community groups in various cities.

If a local group is interested in developing a "Growing Up" project for the young people in its community, the Laboratory and the local group form a core planning committee. This committee, involving parents and representatives of local service organizations, supervises the development and implementation of the project. (Their work parallels that of the application management team and the core planning groups in the CCO and the East Cleveland projects.) They draw on technical assistance from the Laboratory both for program development and the actual operation of their program. Decisionmaking about program implementation, however, lies with the local group. From the following six broad core aspects of activity, local groups develop specific services for young people: service projects; ideology exchange; career exploration; development of skill and talent; personal and man-environment relationships; and culture and history of the group.

Other aspects of the model stress the heavy use of parent volunteers, the participation of parents in planning and decisionmaking, the participation of families in a wide range of direct activities, and so forth. The local "Growing Up" project determines how these specific activities of the program model will be implemented.

A Laboratory research component will provide continuing process and outcome assessment for each program. Local input into the research process and data collection by local program workers will insure that the specific local research method is applicable to the needs and questions of the local program. Drawing on data from all program sites, information will be gathered regarding the effectiveness of the program model on self-esteem and self-concept, familial involvement in self-concept development, and community support of its young members in self-concept growth.

Laboratory involvements. In the East Cleveland project, the Laboratory assumes three roles, in collaboration with local groups, in different phases of the temporary system relationship: technical assistance in the development of the program, technical assistance in and consultation on program activities, and evaluation and feedback. As the program is being implemented over a 5-year period in five different communities, programs are in the development stages in some locations and at the implementation stages in others. This means that the collaborative temporary system relationships are or will be different among the different "Growing Up" projects.

In each local "Growing Up" project, the Laboratory represents the general planning group through its provision of technical assistance and feedback. As the entering point for data on program outcomes in all five areas, the Laboratory can test the models for reliability and utility and whether they can be replicated for broader use.

In each of these examples, the setting of a common problem for the application effort, the identification of the operating agency as the locus of decisionmaking (boundary setting), the development of an application management team, the use of interdisciplinary research teams that include representatives of the operating organization, the provision of organizational development assistance, and followup are all present. Though these aspects may have been more clearly identified in the CCO example, they do help create other collaborative temporary systems through which research technology can be applied to program implementation.

Other means for facilitating innovation

In collaboration with the School's Continuing Education Program, the Laboratory conducts a series of annual institutes on new methods for design and management of human service organizations. These institutes provide opportunities for practitioners, administrators, and other university faculty members to come together to consider particular problems and issues in program design and innovation. Each centers on a particular aspect of Laboratory activity as it relates to innovative practice or program assessment. In January 1972 institutes were conducted on the topics of interorganizational relationships, public and voluntary service arrangements, program evaluation and management information systems, and organizational design and management. Participants can draw on Laboratory associates and each other as resources for consultation in the development of new methods of delivering services in their own settings. Feedback from Laboratory activities and various tools and mechanisms developed by the Laboratory's staff for use in the process of program innovation enable participants to explore the potentials for innovative programs in their own settings.

Through technical assistance relationships with other organizations, the Laboratory is also able to apply knowledge gained in research application proj-

ects to other settings. For example, the Laboratory is now working with a number of municipal and county organizations to develop mechanism for setting up public-voluntary services and for integrating such services. These relationships draw on the research experience of the Laboratory and the knowledge gained from specific research applications.

OUR EXPERIENCE TO DATE with the Human Services Design Laboratory has been very encouraging. Though it is still in its early stages of development, the Laboratory seems to provide a useful vehicle for translating the university's resources of faculty expertise and research skill into useful inputs to the process of service delivery change. At the same time it enriches the School's educational experience by directly involving students in, or by exposing them to, a wide range of innovative methods of delivering human services.

---

[1] *George A. Engstrom, "Where We Stand On Research Utilization,"* Rehabilitation Record, *Nov.-Dec. 1969, pp. 29-32.*

[2] *Margaret F. Clark, "Creating A New Role: The Research Utilization Specialist,"* Rehabilitation Record, *Nov.-Dec. 1969, pp. 32-36.*

[3] *Ronald G. Havelock, "Translating Theory Into Practice,"* Rehabilitation Record, *Nov.-Dec. 1969, pp. 24-27.*

[4] *Herbert C. Schulberg, Allen Sheldon, and Frank Baker, eds.,* Program Evaluation in the Health Fields *(New York: Behavioral Publications), 1970.*

[5] *George A. Engstrom, "Research Utilization: The Challenge of Applying SRS Research,"* Welfare in Review, *Sept.-Oct. 1-7.*

[6] *Havelock, op. cit.*

[7] *Warren G. Bennis, Kenneth O. Benne, and Robert Chin,* The Planning of Change *(New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston), 3d ed., 1969.*

[8] *Robert Chin, "The Utility of Systems and Developmental Models for Practitioners,"* Bennis, Benne, and Chin, eds, The Planning of Change *(New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston), 1961.*

[9] *Frank Baker and Gregory M. St. L. O'Brien, "Intersystems Relations and the Coordination of Human Service Organizations,"* American Journal of Public Health, *1971 (vol. 61, No. 1), pp. 130-37.*

[10] *Havelock, op. cit.*

[11] *Chin, op. cit.*

[12] *Baker and O'Brien, op. cit.*

[13] *Engstrom, "Research Utilization: The Challenge of Applying SRS Research," op. cit.*

[14] *Jewish Vocational Services,* Progress Report: Innovation in Vocational Rehabilitation Program Through Research Utilization, November 1, 1970 through October 31, 1971 *(covers period June 1970-June 1971) (Chicago: The Service), 1971.*

[15] *Havelock, op. cit.*

[16] *Chin, op. cit.*

[17] *Frank Baker, Herbert C. Schulberg, Joan Yager, and Gregory M. St. L. O'Brien, "Problems of a Centralized Nursing Department in a Decentralized Mental Hospital,"* Social Science and Medicine, *1970, vol. 4, pp. 239-52.*

Nutrition Services for the Elderly

A Demonstration Project

Douglas Holmes

Good meals and good company are important to well-being at any stage of life, but for elderly men and women who are isolated and poor, they may be hard to come by. If they are not easily available, the mental and physical health of the elderly will be poorer than it need be. In serving the elderly, therefore, assuring that they eat well and have opportunities to make friends are two major problems. Mealtime can be used to provide both—socializing opportunities as well as nutritional food.

The demonstration project on which this article reports was undertaken to improve the nutrition, psychological, and health status of elderly persons isolated in the inner city of New York. A second and related goal was to locate such persons in the area and to improve their social, psychological, and health conditions. Care was taken to develop procedures that could be used widely as objective means of evaluating program outcome.

The project was conducted in a community center serving a high density, low income, predominantly Jewish neighborhood: the Shorefront YM-YWHA Center of Brighton-Manhattan Beach, a member agency of the Associated YM-YWHA's of Greater New York. Expenses were partly borne by a demonstration grant from the Administration on Aging, Social and Rehabilitation Service, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. The elderly persons accepted into the program were poor in income and social relationships and were not functioning at an adequate social level in the community. As participants they received one (major) meal a day, 5 days a week, 50 weeks a year; took part in a nutrition education program; and received thorough physical examinations and casework interviews. Direct counseling and health services were provided as needed. The program was evaluated through objective data about eating habits, knowledge of nutrition, health care, relations with other people, and morale. Data were taken when the participant entered the program and after he had participated for 6 months.

Because the center has good kitchen facilities, "home-cooked" meals were originally provided: raw food was purchased and prepared by an experienced cook with the help of part-time, paid workers. But the facilities proved inadequate as the program grew. The project then turned to a catering service, which provided hot meals and disposable plates and eating utensils. Menus complied with Jewish dietary regulations. The higher cost of the catering service was offset by the savings in labor costs.

Participants were charged a small sum for each meal, according to their income. The grant from the Administration on Aging took care of the differences between the amount collected and the actual cost of providing meals. Contrary to expectations, most participants did not ask to pay less than the set fee—only those in dire circumstances asked for special consideration. Yet, despite their willingness to pay what they could for

Dr. Holmes is Director, Center for Community Research, a division of the Associated YM-YWHA's of Greater New York. He was the director of the demonstration project he describes in this article.

This investigation was supported, in part, by Demonstration Grant No. AA-4-69-062-02 from the Title IV Research and Development Grants Program, Administration on Aging, Social and Rehabilitation Service, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

meals, many often engaged in subterfuge to avoid paying at all. Such actions were not surprising among men and women who had fought their way through life in the garment industry, where the worker was always trying to take advantage of the piece-rate reward system the industry offered. Eventually, a system of selling a week's tickets was devised, each set of tickets being stamped with a personal identification number. The participant was thus guaranteed a place for a week, and bookkeeping was made easier.

Originally, meals were served at noon, but this proved to be an unreasonable hour because service at that time interfered with other center activities. As it turned out, participants preferred to have an evening meal, particularly in summer. Usually, then, meals were served in the early evening, in time for most participants to get home before dark.

Because nutrition instruction and socializing were part of the program, a participant signed up for a week's meals and no refunds were given except for very good reasons, usually medical. Participants apparently understood the importance of the program and "policed" each other on attendance.

Seating arrangements brought more difficult problems than expected. At first tables were arranged banquet style, that is, several long tables were set up. But this arrangement lead to confusion—even animosity and fighting over food—and prevented socialization. The tables were then broken down to seat 10 persons only, a rearrangement that made serving but not socialization easier. The next arrangement proved happier: the rectangular tables were replaced by round tables for 10 persons. Aides drawn from the people using the center brought food to the tables. A "table captain" served each table, kept a record of absences, and relayed questions or complaints to the program staff. The captain in time took on the responsibility of stimulating general conversation at his table and of encouraging participants to attend social activities available to them through the program.

Health regulations prevented the staff from making formal provisions for delivering meals to absent members. But table captains were furnished insulated bags, and they could arrange for such delivery.

Social activities

The first effort to give participants opportunities to socialize with each other was, of course, in the table arrangements. Once the round table proved its worth, the next problem was how to make the newcomer fit into a table group. This problem was solved by drawing on the ability of the most capable of the table captains. The project caseworker discussed the problem with him and together they worked out a way to include the newcomer in table activities. This captain and several of the most socially adept participants were assigned to a special table. Newcomers were also assigned to this table for a while, until they felt at ease and seemed ready to make new friends at other tables.

The system worked well. The regular members of the table took pride in their assignment as welcomers and did everything they could to make newcomers feel at home, to introduce them to others, and to encourage them to enjoy activities. This was the first step in the socialization process.

Early in the project a number of social committees were set up—the welcoming committee, the meal-planning committee, the table captains' committee, and the outreach committee among them—which gave the participants opportunities to help the project staff run the program. Also, they helped participants identify with the project. As committeemen they were not only dinner guests but also active participants in a project serving others!

However, the committees at times created problems. Intense rivalries arose among and within them, often requiring considerable staff attention to dissipate. But the staff believed that benefits far outweighed problems.

Project staff members tried as hard as they could to create a social, festive atmosphere at meal time. For instance, there was a monthly birthday party for all participants whose birthdays had occurred within the previous month—the "birthday people" were seated together and had party favors and the like. Meals were often followed by songs or, sometimes, impromptu entertainment by participants.

Every attempt was made to involve participants in the center's general activities for all elderly persons. Here results fell short of expectations. One reason may have been that the center's staff was already overburdened and the center's facilities could be taxed no further. Another may have been that other elderly users of the center may have envied project participants for the special attention and services they were receiving. Whatever the reasons, project staff members found it difficult to involve project participants in broader center programs. After the project was over, the staff could see some actions that might have been taken to resolve the difficulty. It would have been

helpful if the center's staff and the project staff had been able to meet together more regularly. And other elderly center users might have borne participants less envy had it been possible to have them as "guests" at meals from time to time.

Nutrition education

Through the nutrition education program, the project hoped that participants would learn more about nutrition, understand better how to buy and prepare food economically, and generally come to regard cooking and eating as worthwhile activities—a feeling that many of them had lost in being old and isolated.

At first the program followed more or less traditional lines. Lectures were offered twice a week and educational flyers were distributed to participants. As pointed out, participant committees were formed to plan menus and to work with professional staff members to promote educational activities. Twice a week the project's nutritionist spoke during the meal and discussed the nutritional value of the food served that day.

But after 6 months the project found that these activities were not working. Formal lectures seemed particularly ineffective. Competing with mealtime conversation was a lost cause and at cross-purpose with the goal of socialization. Nor did the printed material hit the mark. Some of the participants could not read, and few were oriented toward "educational materials."

The next step was to hire a nutritionist with a very commonsense approach to nutrition education. She all but abandoned lectures, replacing them with discussion groups. Her method was built on these principles: maintaining a continuing relationship with participants; letting participants choose topics of immediate interest to them; involving participants directly and actively in virtually all aspects of nutrition and meal planning; delivering all material on nutrition in an informal, varying style; and getting across her genuine interest in and respect for older persons.

The nutrition discussion groups were a great success and were usually attended by at least 80 persons (of a possible 140). Their effect was reinforced by meal-planning procedures. On rotation each table was responsible for working with the nutritionist and planning a week's menus. Members of the "elected" table were responsible for the reception given the meals during "its week." They had to explain and justify their choices, which meant they had to be thoroughly conversant with the why's and wherefore's of good nutrition. Over time nearly every participant helped plan meals at least once. The social pressure the participants as a whole brought to bear on each participant worked very well toward insuring that each knew his nutrition.

Health services

The original demonstration proposal specifically pointed out the possibility that many of the persons to be served would need health services. To determine what services participants needed, a questionnaire was prepared by the Columbia University School of Public Health to be administered to applicants, but it proved to be an insufficient means of determining health when administered by staff members without medical training. Consequently, to combat this shortcoming, the project arranged for free health examinations at a nearby hospital through the New York City Department of Health. Thereafter each applicant was examined immediately for his ability to take part in the meals program, and results were sent to the project within 48 hours. About a month later he had a full-scale medical examination. Results of this examination were sent to the project only when they would affect his participation in the program or to insure that he got the attention he needed. Also, a psychiatrist came to the center one day a week for consultation with participants.

In retrospect, it seems that such a consultive arrangement with local health agencies is crucial to the operation of a program like this. It is necessary, first, to avoid doing the elderly person more harm than good with the wrong diet, and, second, to insure that all the elderly person's health needs are met.

The health program highlights the need for continuing community organization activities. Certainly no program such as this can be completely self-sustaining. A number of services and facilities available to the elderly in the community can be marshaled only if appropriate community organization methods are used. For this reason a committee was formed of the directors of virtually all social and welfare agencies in the area. The group discussed the problems of delivering comprehensive services to participants. Each then used his resources to solve the problems in his service field.

Outreach activities

Before the project began the staff thought that applicants would far outnumber accommodations, and they set stiff criteria for acceptance—only persons who were elderly, isolated, indigent, and nutritionally poor would be eligible—in other words, only persons who desperately needed help. Yet only a few applicants came from the elderly persons in the neighborhood known to be in dire need. A small corps of the staff then was assigned to Program Outreach and given the task of finding eligible persons living in the neighborhood. They were assisted by 10 part-time aides drawn from "local" people. Outreach helped prepare bulletins and got in touch with local religious leaders; social, welfare, and recreation organizations; post office employees; building superintendents; stores; and political clubs. The staff asked for names and addresses. They combed the neighborhood, even stopping people on the street. Their efforts met with success: in time there were more applicants than spaces. The experience pointed up the need to use various methods simultaneously to reach needy elderly persons. The local aides proved particularly useful.

Program evaluation

The project included an evaluation component. The general hypothesis examined was that the provision of meals and nutrition education would improve the eating habits and patterns of program participants. Implicit predictions stemming from this general hypothesis were that the participants would improve in several ways—in health, sociability, and "life satisfaction."

The people served. A number of objective criteria were developed for deciding individual program eligibility. These included income, degree of social isolation, eating habits, health status, and living arrangements. Based on early program experience, differential weights were established in deriving a total score for each applicant. The scores determined those eligible for the program and those "too well off" to be included.

A great deal of demographic data were collected from all participants. However, whether the data represent all isolated persons in the community is speculative—all that can be said is that the data represent the persons the staff were able to locate. Probably, the most needy persons were those least likely to be reached.

Over 400 people ultimately took part. Study data were collected from 150 persons who remained with the program for at least 6 months after the final revision of the questionnaire was completed. Though "baseline" data are available on all program participants, uniform "pre" and "post" data were collected only on those in the program for 6 months or more. Data collection started in the second (and final) year of the project because of the many administrative changes made in the first year.

Demographic data. Of the 150 participants 57 percent were women. All were 65 years of age or older, 36 percent being between 65 and 70; 31 percent between 71 to 75; 21 percent between 76 and 80; and the remainder 81 years of age or older.

Only 14 percent were married; over 66 percent were widowed; and about 20 percent were either divorced or single. Slightly over two-thirds lived alone.

Most participants lived in rented apartments in apartment houses, although almost a quarter reported living in roominghouses or in rented rooms in another's apartment. Almost three-fourths of those living in apartments said their buildings were "rent controlled." Most felt that their dwelling units and buildings were kept in good repair.

Almost all participants were unemployed, only 28 percent at their own volition. Most had been forced to retire, either because of age or disability. Only 3 percent had annual incomes as high as $4,000 to $5,000. Most—71 percent—had incomes of less than $2,000 a year.

All participants were white, and 99 percent were Jewish, reflecting the makeup of the neighborhood.

The interviewers felt that about a quarter of the participants were physically "strong," about half "fairly strong," about a fifth "somewhat unsteady and feeble," and the others (3 percent) "feeble or ill." About a fourth had marked physical disabilities, some requiring specific therapeutic treatment.

Variables tested. In addition to demographic data, the interviews dealt with nutrition, health, medical care, life style, interpersonal relations, and morale. Only the results that were statistically significant are discussed here.

Data collection and analysis. All data were collected during the individual interviews conducted when the applicant entered (Time I) the program and during

another interview conducted 6 months later (Time II). Once a potential program participant had been located or had applied for admission, he was seen immediately by an intake interviewer. The first questions put to him concerned eligibility—age, income, and eating habits. His replies were scored immediately and in his presence. If he was ineligible, the interviewer explained clearly and fully the reason for rejection. Most applicants talked freely, even to the extent of prolonging the interview. No attempt was made to cut interviews short, in the belief that long discussions were helpful to the applicants.

Both professional and nonprofessional workers collected data. The professional workers—social caseworkers and group workers—as well as research assistants worked for the center "as needed." They required no training as far as the questionnaire went. The local aides, however, did need training, including practice sessions, in the use of the questionnaire. Probably because they were carefully selected, interviewers had no difficulty administering the interview schedule.

Only two types of reliability estimates were feasible: test-retest and interrater. In this context both depend on almost immediate readministration to the applicant or participant; therefore the project staff decided that these methods would be harmful to participants, and thus no objective reliability estimates were obtained. Most data were concrete—age, sex, marital status—and with the exception of information about "morale," could be accepted as reliable.

Results

Only results with definite meaning for program are presented here—that is, responses found to differ at acceptable levels of statistical significance.

Nutrition. Over half the participants included in the data reported that they found cooking, cleaning, and marketing "very hard to impossible" to do. Apparently it was not impossible for them to perform these tasks but very hard, and because they were hard, participants were probably not able to maintain adequate nutrition, left to their own devices.

Information on where participants went for meals outside the program came close to significant difference. At the beginning fewer persons had "at home" meals than would be expected by chance alone. At Time II there were more instances of eating at home. Possibly the program had motivated participants to eat at home rather than in restaurants or to get meals from takeout shops.

At first about 40 percent of the participants felt that they "needed help in planning their meals." After 6 months the percentage had dropped to about 20. The program apparently helped to better equip participants to plan and cook their own meals in a proportion that chance could not explain.

Participants reported that their appetites changed from poor or fair to good or "too" good. Though a greater than chance proportion reported "poor" or "fair" appetites at the beginning of the program, a less than chance proportion made such a report at the end. Participants also reported having more full breakfasts and more full dinners on weekends at Time II.

Health status. When they entered the program, participants were asked this question: How, in general, would you rate your health—excellent, fair, or poor? Data analysis indicates no significant differences between replies at Time I and Time II, though replies were in the predicted direction: more people indicated that their health was better and fewer said they considered their health worse. More men than women reported themselves in better health. For questions about need for medical care, medical insurance, home health care, history of hospitalization and illness, and experience with home care services, there were virtually no changes. Again, there were, however, differences by sex and by age. Women seemed to prefer continued medical care. Older persons were more likely to have Medicare insurance only and younger participants to have other forms of health insurance as well.

Social involvement. Participants were asked whether they would like to meet other elderly persons socially. A significantly higher percentage said yes at the end of 6 months than at the beginning. The impressions of the project's staff agree with this result. The following quotations from interviews with participants are typical of the social enjoyment many said the meals and other activities were giving them:

Gave me a new lease on life because now I have a social life.

When you break bread with people you really have contact with them and you actually enjoy the eating experience.

I now have more friends than I know what to do with.

You go away from the house, you forget all your troubles and this makes me get dressed and go.

This result is encouraging when weighed against the formal aim of the program—to bring a wholesome

social life to elderly persons. It is particularly encouraging that the elderly persons said that they did not want to confine their social activities to other project participants.

Morale. Participants were asked several questions about morale, including this: As you get older, would you say things seem to be better or worse than you thought they would be? In most cases, morale improved over the 6 months, as these quotations from replies attest:

Since I come here and I sit with people and I eat, I've become a different person altogether.

These five meals put me on my feet.

This program is my best medicine.

If not for this program I'd be in the hospital.

I save on doctor bills.

These results are especially encouraging because they reflect a state of mind that should go beyond program participation.

Participants were also asked the frequency with which they were in contact with members of their families and with friends. The differences between Time I and Time II were not significant statistically with regard to family, though they did contact family members more frequently at Time II. The trend was very much in the direction of increased involvement with family members and friends. It is more than possible that the failure of the data for this question to show change with regard to "families" at an acceptable level of statistical significance is a direct outgrowth of the nature of the data, that is, so many categories were involved that the increased frequency, particularly in the "everyday" category was obscured. Further questions dealt with the form of this contact. For "family" contact was generally by telephone, and the additional number of contacts made at Time II was by telephone. Among friends, however, contact was generally in person. Many friendships (including two marriages) were the direct outgrowth of program participation.

Implications

There are several major implications to be drawn from this program experience:

- Any organization or group of persons planning to develop and maintain a nutrition program should be aware of the potential problems they might have to meet. Virtually none of the problems met in the YM-YWHA project seriously threatened the program maintenance. However, if they had been anticipated, they might have been circumvented and, therefore, the program might have developed and functioned more efficiently at an earlier date.

- Before starting a nutrition program, a practical picture of the necessary staffing patterns should be developed. Staffing during the first year will of necessity be more extensive than in the subsequent years, and particular care should be given to the identification and training of a group of older workers drawn from the locale who can provide much of program maintenance while benefitting themselves through participation in the project.

- Finally, it is evident that there are many fringe benefits from such a nutrition project. Quite aside from nutritional considerations, the provision of meals can serve as a stimulus to develop a variety of programs aimed at helping the elderly enjoy their lives.

Demonstration Projects in Public Assistance

Fiscal Year 1971

Jean D. LeMasurier

SINCE THE BEGINNING of the program of demonstration projects in public assistance in 1963, as authorized by Sec. 1115 of the Social Security Act, 439 projects have been approved. During fiscal year 1971 (July 1, 1970-June 30, 1971), 81 new project applications were processed. Of the new project applications, 16 were approved with grants, 28 were approved as waiver only projects (explained in the next paragraph), 15 were rejected, 10 were withdrawn, and 12 remained pending at the close of the fiscal year. Of the continuation applications, 53 were approved with grants, 10 were approved as waiver only projects, four were rejected or terminated, and the approval period was extended for five. Table 1 shows the primary program fields of the 162 projects active at any time during fiscal year 1971.

Under Sec. 1115 the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare is authorized to make grants to State public assistance agencies to cover the cost of pilot, experimental, or demonstration projects designed to help improve the family life of public assistance recipients and to move them toward economic independence. In addition,

Miss LeMasurier is a social science program specialist, Demonstration Projects Branch, Division of Research and Demonstrations Grants; Office of Research and Demonstrations; Office of Planning, Research, and Training; Social and Rehabilitation Service; U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

Table 1. Primary program fields of demonstration projects active in fiscal year 1971: new and continued

Primary program fields	Number of projects			Total special Federal project funds obligated in fiscal year 1971[1]
	With grant (special Federal project funds)	Without grant (waiver only)	Total	
Social services	47	34	81	$1,408,421
Medical services	6	4	10	73,146
Stronger administration; program development	2	3	5	
New administrative methods, including service integration and building administrative capacity	31	9	40	2,050,232
Manpower development and training	10	--	10	148,589
Preparation of public assistance recipients for self-support	11	1	12	313,577
Extended eligibility and increased assistance payments	2	2	4	
Total	109	53	162	$3,993,965

[1] *Does not reflect obligations incurred in previous fiscal years. During fiscal year 1971, five projects were extended and 28 involving waiver-of-plan requirements were approved. These projects did not require special Federal project fund grant.*

whenever requirements of other sections of the act would keep an agency from starting or completing a project meeting the purpose of the program, the Secretary may waive certain requirements, particularly that a project be statewide. Projects operating under such a waiver are called "waiver only" projects. The program is administered by the Social and Rehabilitation Service (SRS). Waiver only approvals are made by SRS' regional commissioners.

Geographic distribution

The 162 projects active at any time in fiscal year 1971 were distributed among 43 jurisdictions, including the District of Columbia. Table 2 shows their distribution by SRS' regions; table 3 the total amounts of grants by jurisdiction.

Fiscal year 1971 projects

What follows is a brief outline of some of the projects in operation, including new projects, during fiscal year 1971. See tables 4 and 5 for all grant awards and waiver only projects.

Fiscal year 1971 Research and Demonstration Strategy. During fiscal year 1971, SRS' Office of Research and Demonstrations developed the first Research and Demonstration Strategy. The strategy identified program fields with priority research and demonstration needs. In support of the Strategy, 16 Sec. 1115 demonstration projects were developed and approved. They fell under four major categories: service integration, building administrative capacity, coordination of public assistance-vocational rehabilitation programs, and technical assistance.

Table 2. Project distribution by SRS regions

Region (headquarters)	Number of projects			Total special Federal project funds obligated in fiscal year 1971
	With grant (special Federal project funds)	Without grant (waiver only)	Total	
I (Boston)	13	7	20	$845,392
II (New York)	4	3	7	343,965
III (Philadelphia)	14	7	21	234,874
IV (Atlanta)	25	18	43	850,485
V (Chicago)	12	2	14	275,953
VI (Kansas City)	12	5	17	528,733
VII (Dallas)	2	2	4	27,809
VIII (Denver)	10	1	11	288,183
IX (San Francisco)	5	5	10	193,796
X (Seattle)	12	3	15	404,775
Total	109	53	162	$3,993,965

Service integration. Nine service integration projects were developed in fiscal year 1971. They were designed to test a variety of service delivery systems in different settings, including these: an integrated decentralized system incorporating the data elements of the Case Administration Service System (CASS); a district system in a rural area; an integrated system in a rural area with a large Indian population; a decentralized comprehensive system in an urban skidrow area; an integrated delivery system, including a nutrition program for elderly public assistance recipients in a three-county area; a multiservice center offering a comprehensive plan for each recipient; a multiservice center for a new urban community; coordination of service efforts by a city government; and development of a multiservice program through a contract with a mayor's office.

Building administrative capacity. Two demonstration projects were focused on building administrative planning capacity in the State welfare office. One developed an integrated planning process incorporating social, physical, and economic functions; the other developed a planning team directly responsible to the governor's office.

Public assistance-vocational rehabilitation cooperation. Three projects were approved to develop ways of coordinating the efforts of State vocational rehabilitation agencies and State welfare agencies to pro-

Table 3. Distribution by State of Sec. 1115 projects approved to begin or continue during fiscal year 1971

State	Number of projects		Total special Federal project funds obligated in fiscal year 1971
	With grant (special Federal project funds)	Without grant (waiver only)	
Alabama	1	2	$12,980
Arkansas	1	--	32,792
California	3	3	193,796
Colorado	1	--	9,785
Connecticut	2	1	99,216
Delaware	1	--	25,000
District of Columbia	1	1	87,500
Florida	5	1	319,863
Georgia	2	1	141,229
Illinois	2	1	66,209
Iowa	--	1	--
Kentucky	2	2	235,341
Maine	3	--	267,488
Maryland	1	--	12,500
Massachusetts	2	1	249,781
Michigan	3	1	67,043
Minnesota	2	--	67,701
Mississippi	1	1	9,381
Missouri	2	1	27,809
Montana	2	--	107,574
New Hampshire	1	--	18,965
New Jersey	1	1	82,763
New Mexico	1	--	78,343
New York	2	2	261,202
North Carolina	4	3	85,986
North Dakota	1	--	74,719
Ohio	1	--	75,000
Oklahoma	3	--	350,439
Oregon	1	--	135,064
Pennsylvania	1	1	70,602
Rhode Island	1	--	18,331
South Carolina	--	2	--
Tennessee	2	2	45,705
Texas	1	5	67,159
Utah	2	--	96,105
Vermont	1	--	191,611
Virginia	2	2	39,272
Washington	7	2	269,711
West Virginia	--	1	--
Total	69	38	$3,993,965

vide more nearly comprehensive services to disabled public assistance recipients. One project aimed at reaching disabled recipients identified as needy but for whom services have been inaccessible; another tested employment incentives to encourage recipients to seek rehabilitation; and the third concentrated on providing joint services centered on recipient motivation and selective job placement.

Technical assistance. Two new projects were developed in the field of technical assistance: one provided assistance to a local organization for the development of a community-based rehabilitation center for drug addicts; the other provided assistance for acquiring planning and evaluation staff members to establish evaluation capacity for 14 newly developed operational centers.

Social service delivery system. In this field 14 continuation projects tested new service delivery systems intended to increase the accessibility of services. These projects experimented with a variety of delivery methods, including the comprehensive service center idea, the development of model systems based on local service units and social services supportive of H. R. 1 (President Nixon's welfare reform program is incorporated in this bill now before the U.S. House of Representatives); and a decentralized and coordinated way of delivering services.

Four other projects, continued for a final year, provided neighborhood services with the help of local people, principally Indians, Mexican-Americans, and public assistance recipients living in the areas served, employed as subprofessional staff members.

Two other projects continued during fiscal year 1971 were part of a demonstration applying a relative effectiveness model and associated analytical methods to the major service fields under Titles IV-A and XVI of the Social Security Act. These projects were aimed at determining the cost-effectiveness of providing services at that time.

Health services. Six continuing projects were testing methods of

(Concluded on page 24)

Table 4. Demonstration projects approved in fiscal year 1971 under Sec. 1115, Social Security Act: new and continued

State	Project number	Grant	Title and purpose
Alabama	11-P-57068/4-03 (544)	$12,980	**Purchase of care for children in their own or relatives' homes; emergency services for children in need of protection.** To provide payments for child care in a child's home or that of a relative and protective services for children in emergencies.
Arkansas	11-P-57013/6-03 (290)	32,792	**Legal services to the poor.** To experiment with providing legal services to public assistance recipients by employing seven attorneys, such service to be provided throughout the State.
California	11-P-57060/9-02 (534)	65,025	**Employment and career opportunitues for the Mexican-American group.** To find ways and means of providing career opportunities for Mexican-Americans.
	11-P-57063/9-03 (537)	100,000	**Model State project for public welfare data-processing.** To design and put in operation the best possible systems structures required to support the administration of programs in Federal, State, and local offices. (One of five profile States in the national ADP plan.)
	11-P-57098/9-02 (586)	28,771	**Health care outreach project.** To develop better ways of delivering health care services through the use of health care team to work with parents, day care workers, physicians, dentists, and others, and thus to provide a bridge between the parent and health care resources.
Colorado	11-P-57036/8-02 (449)	9,785	**Use of family services casework staff living in the indigenous community served.** To demonstrate the value of caseworkers residing in the geographic area they serve.
Connecticut	11-P-57032/1-03 (440)	63,063	**Housing improvement program of Hartford.** To offer a variety of special services aimed at improving the housing situation and needs of public assistance families.
	11-P-57067/1-03 (543)	36,153	**Legal services program.** To provide legal services to 150 public assistance recipients, offering each a choice between attorneys from a public neighborhood law office and a panel of attorneys in private practice.
Delaware	11-P-57195/3-01	25,000	**Service integration of employment, social services, and rehabilitation.** By furnishing planning and evaluation staff members, to bring unified social, employment, and rehabilitation services to present, former, and potential public assistance recipients through 14 operational centers.
District of Columbia	11-P-57192/3-01	87,500	**A total package of integrated social and rehabilitation services.** To develop a model integrated service delivery system for current and potential AFDC recipients, by offering a full range of social services to a test group of recipients in the Anacostia section of the city and thoroughly analyzing the results.
Florida	11-P-57042/4-03 (468)	5,411	**Youth opportunity coordinator project.** To employ a "youth opportunity coordinator" to coordinate and develop employment programs for AFDC young people.
	11-P-57053/4-03 (516)	24,452	**Tampa child care project.** To provide complete day care services using community efforts that will meet the needs of working mothers and mothers in work training programs.
	11-P-57056/4-03 (525)	225,000	**Model State project for public welfare data-processing.** See California (537).
	11-P-57093/4-01 (580)	2,500	**A model project for a computer-based social service delivery system.** To demonstrate the use of a comprehensive social service delivery system based on a one-stop service center with social and supporting services subunits.
	11-P-57201/4-01	62,500	**An integrated social services-nutrition system.** To develop a comprehensive, integrated service program, including nutrition services, directed at the problems of people 60 and older.
Georgia	11-P-57070/4-03 (547)	115,000	**Georgia consumer affairs project.** To provide information to public assistance recipients and other low income persons that will help each recipient protect his interest as a consumer and manage family money to the best advantage.
	11-P-57074/4-02 (548)	26,229	**Housing aid to the aged.** To demonstrate that a public welfare agency can be the catalyst in coordinating the efforts of various types of housing aid and service agencies in a community through HEW and HUD programs aimed at improving housing for elderly public assistance recipients.

Table 4. Demonstration projects approved in fiscal year 1971 under Sec. 1115, Social Security Act: new and continued--Continued

State	Project number	Grant	Title and purpose
Illinois	11-P-57117/5-02 (612)	$13,315	**Develop and test a model health maintenance organization.** By establishing a cooperative venture between the State Department of Public Aid and the University of Illinois School of Medicine, to design and demonstrate new methods of delivering health services as the basis of a prepayment model.
	11-P-57203/5-01	52,894	**West Side drug and rehabilitation center.** By purchasing the services of the West Side Organization for Full Employment, to demonstrate the operations of a community-based drug rehabilitation center.
Kentucky	11-P-57037/4-03 (458)	215,687	**Improvements to homes owned by AABD-AFDC recipients.** To test methods for and costs of carrying out the home repair provisions of Sec. 1119 of the 1967 Amendments to the Social Security Act in four eastern Kentucky counties.
	11-P-57039/4-03 (462)	19,654	**Services in the neighborhood-PA involvement; Part I, comprehensive evaluation and training unit; Part II, Park-Duvalle Neighborhood Service Center.** To provide the public welfare component of the Louisville neighborhood service program, including use of new service delivery methods, development of interagency-intercenter methods of solving social problems, and determination of the quality and quantity of services.
Maryland	11-P-57194/3-01	12,500	**Demonstration of a comprehensive multi-service center in a rapidly urbanizing rural county.** To demonstrate the role and effectiveness of a multiservice center in a rural county with a new planned urban area and new industrial growth.
Maine	11-P-57059/1-03 (533)	151,850	**Model State project for public welfare data-processing.** See California (537).
	11-P-57155/1-01	90,638	**Social services delivery system.** To test the effectiveness of the social service delivery system developed by the American Public Welfare Association to help people with their social problems; and to test the suitability of data collected for a social service information system.
	11-P-57200/1-01	25,000	**Improving planning capability of State human services agencies.** To reorganize the delivery and manpower planning divisions of all agencies in human services through a planning team directly responsible to the State Governor.
Massachusetts	11-P-57025/1-03 (405)	214,612	**Linking, integrating, and strengthening public welfare services in a neighborhood service center program.** To strengthen and coordinate public assistance services to low income families and make them more responsive to community needs.
	11-P-57144/1-01	35,169	**Experiment in the development of a coordinated system for the delivery of human services in New Bedford, Mass.** By contract with the Mayor's office to establish a citizen's commission and furnish a full-time staff, to develop a multi-service program to coordinate the work of public and private service agencies.
Michigan	11-P-57101/5-02 (590)	17,043	**Consumer information services demonstration.** To insure that public assistance recipients through training and involvement as consumers in a self-determination process will increase their capacity for adjusting to and alleviating consumer abuses.
	11-P-57198/5-01	25,000	**Lansing Model Cities planning demonstration.** To develop an integrated planning system and integrated service delivery system that coordinates social, physical, and economic functions.
	11-P-57204/5-01	25,000	**Coordinated welfare and rehabilitation services for disabled PA recipients.** To demonstrate that the efficiency and effectiveness of services offered by the State vocational rehabilitation agency can be increased by interagency coordination and integration.
Minnesota	11-P-57064/5-02 (539)	31,818	**Coordination of child care efforts and services in the Willard School District of the pilot city area of Minneapolis, Minnesota.** To demonstrate the benefits of a coordinated community effort, both public and private, in meeting day care needs through a comprehensive child care center.
	11-P-57111/5-02 (603)	35,883	**Relative effectiveness of social services.** To demonstrate the application of a relative effectiveness model and associated analytical procedures to three major service fields under Title IV-A of the Social Security Act.

Table 4. Demonstration projects approved in fiscal year 1971 under Sec. 1115, Social Security Act: new and continued—Continued

State	Project number	Grant	Title and purpose
Mississippi	11-P-57065/4-03 (540)	$9,381	**Parents aid program.** To provide after school care to children of present, former, or potential AFDC recipients through the voluntary services of high school students.
Missouri	11-P-57083/7-02 (565)	13,949	**Casework services to unmarried mothers in St. Louis, Department of Education extended school program.** To provide the social resources component in a comprehensive community effort to coordinate social, medical, and educational resources for 240 teenage unmarried pregnant schoolgirls.
	11-P-57088/7-02 (572)	13,860	**Volunteer citizens program to combat hunger and malnutrition among low income families.** To develop and carry out a model for a volunteer citizens program aimed at promoting, assisting, and supporting the food, nutritional, and educational services needed to arouse interest in and obtain help for low income families.
Montana	11-P-57183/8-01	98,140	**Rural social service delivery system.** To analyze the service delivery problems of a sparsely populated five-county area and develop services to meet them.
	11-P-57080/8-02 (557)	9,434	**A team approach to rehabilitation services in a sparsely settled rural area.** By using a team method to ease the return of public welfare recipients to employment (including off-reservation Indians), to expand the services of the Department of Public Welfare and the Division of Vocational Rehabilitation in a sparsely settled area.
North Carolina	11-P-57061/4-03 (535)	47,808	**Mecklenburg County extended day care program for Model Cities area.** To provide an extended day care program for school-age children after school and during the summer months.
	11-P-57075/4-02 (551)	8,532	**North Carolina legal services program.** To obtain empirical data on the neighborhood office idea in three counties preliminary to starting a statewide legal service program incorporating a substantial number of these facilities.
	11-P-57107/4-02 (597)	12,858	**Forsyth County youth development project.** To demonstrate the value of providing adolescents from poor families with an opportunity to take part in established community programs that usually serve only children from economically independent families.
	11-P-57108/4-02 (598)	16,788	**Case management in a medical assistance program.** To demonstrate that the use of social service aides in case management and counseling will increase the use of medical services by the poor and thereby improve their health.
North Dakota	11-P-57187/8-01	74,719	**Devil's Lake comprehensive human services center project.** To establish a comprehensive and integrated rural human services delivery system in the Devil's Lake region of the State.
New Hampshire	11-P-57042/1-03 (464)	18,965	**Gear Up.** To help transfer the State welfare agency to an automated data-processing system.
New Jersey	11-P-57113/2-02 (606)	82,763	**Public welfare services to low income families and individuals in a suburban area.** To provide a coordinated comprehensive method for delivering social services in a suburban rural area from a community-based location using trained subprofessional staff members.
New Mexico	11-P-57069/6-02 (545)	78,343	**Comprehensive child care and development project.** To design and test a comprehensive system of child care and development in the Albuquerque model neighborhood area.
New York	11-P-57054/2-02 (519)	23,202	**An educational program for supervision in public welfare.** To develop and conduct a part-time graduate education program at the Fordham University School of Social Services for administrators and supervisors without professional training.
	11-P-57058/2-03 (531)	238,000	**New York State model project within the nationwide program for public welfare data-processing.** See California (537).
Ohio	11-P-57188/5-01	75,000	**East Cleveland human services center.** To demonstrate the capacity of a city government for marshaling public and private resources to develop and coordinate an integrated social service delivery system.

Table 4. Demonstration projects approved in fiscal year 1971 under Sec. 1115, Social Security Act: new and continued—Continued

State	Project number	Grant	Title and purpose
Oklahoma	11-P-57045/6-02 (483)	$200,000	**Oklahoma welfare information system.** See California (537).
	11-P-57049/6-03 (504)	75,439	**Mobilization of community resources toward prevention and reduction of births out-of-wedlock and to otherwise strengthen family life.** To develop a model for a program aimed at attacking the sources of births out-of-wedlock through marshaling and coordinating community resources.
	11-P-57197/6-01	75,000	**Incentive to encourage disabled PA recipients to undertake rehabilitation.** To demonstrate that new kinds of employment incentives can be effective in encouraging public assistance recipients to undertake rehabilitation.
Oregon	11-P-57057/0-03 (527)	135,064	**Work evaluation center project.** By combining the resources of the Public Welfare Commission, the Department of Vocational Rehabilitation, and the Employment Service to serve clients in three counties rapidly and without duplication.
Pennsylvania	11-P-57087/2-02 (571)	70,602	**Pennsylvania social service system.** To test a model social service delivery system designed by the American Public Welfare Association in a pilot county (Delaware).
Rhode Island	11-P-57104/1-02 (593)	18,331	**Young parents service project.** To provide a program of early and intensive communitywide service to the unmarried parent in which the whole community is engaged.
Tennessee	11-P-57031/4-03 (437)	41,067	**Intake at neighborhood center; juvenile detention unit; homemaker project; protective service program.** To enable the welfare unit of the Chattanooga Neighborhood Service Program to provide an intake unit at a neighborhood center; casework services in a detention unit; homemaker services to OAA, AB, and APTD recipients; and concentrated services to families and children in a specific area.
	11-P-57062/4-02 (536)	4,638	**Smithville-DeKalb County Model Cities program, homemaker services.** To provide homemaker services to persons in all categories of assistance in Model Cities areas to enable them to achieve full or part self-support.
Texas	11-P-57105/6-02 (594)	67,159	**Waco Home and Family Center.** To demonstrate new ways of providing services to meet the most urgent needs of residents of a pilot city area by establishing a home and family center with a child care laboratory, home management aides, transportation service, and community planning and organization.
Utah	11-P-57096/8-02 (583)	35,743	**Community information, referral and counseling services center.** To develop a new social service delivery system designed to more effectively meet the needs of public welfare recipients through a family life center.
	11-P-57052/8-03 (512)	60,362	**A systems approach to manpower utilization and training.** To improve the service delivery system and quality and quantity of services, by developing and testing a different staffing structure: one that uses a wider range of staff members, including paraprofessional and volunteers, functioning at their highest levels.
Vermont	11-P-57114/1-02 (609)	191,611	**Public social service project.** To test and install a social service delivery system to prepare the State agency for social services supportive of "welfare reform." (This pilot project includes complete separation of services from assistance.)
Virginia	11-P-57106/3-02 (596)	14,272	**Case management in a medical assistance program through the use of the subprofessional.** By using case aides as intermediaries between patient and physician, to increase the use of health care facilities by public assistance recipients.
	11-P-57196/3-01	25,000	**Identification of new coordinated approaches to serve the disabled welfare recipient.** To broaden and strengthen the service delivery system available to the disabled welfare recipient through the development of new coordinated and integrated methods for use by the welfare agency and the vocational rehabilitation agency.

Table 4. Demonstration projects approved in fiscal year 1971 under Sec. 1115, Social Security Act: new and continued—Concluded

State	Project number	Grant	Title and purpose
Washington	11-P-57021/0-03 (383)	$61,299	**Foster family homes for adults.** To experiment with the use of foster homes and medical services for adults needing a place to live and receive care away from their own homes (other than nursing home care).
	11-P-57027/0-03 (413)	10,028	**Seattle model neighborhood planning project.** To demonstrate the value of welfare staff members taking part in Model Cities planning and implementation, by formulating the welfare component of the Seattle Model Cities neighborhood program.
	11-P-57102/0-02 (591)	46,990	**Neighborhood social service center project.** To make services more readily available in the neighborhood by establishing two centers to meet the special needs of model neighborhood residents, primarily skidrow persons.
	11-P-57115/0-02 (609)	36,045	**Social services evaluation demonstration, Yakima, Washington.** To demonstrate the application of a relative effectiveness model and associated analytical procedures to three major service fields under Title IV-A of the Social Security Act.
	11-P-57094/0-02 (581)	30,750	**Lummi Indian project.** To directly involve the Lummi Indians in planning and developing a communitywide social welfare program on their reservation. (The program involves a training component with a career ladder that will prepare the Lummi for eventual control of the service delivery system.)
	11-P-57047/0-02 (488)	14,216	**Evaluation and inventory project.** Through a multidisciplinary team, to evaluate the rehabilitation potential of a selected group of public assistance recipients and to provide the services they need.
	11-P-57193/0-01	70,383	**Integrated service delivery development and evaluation project.** To put into operation and evaluate a general decentralized and integrated service program in three or four of the State's 10 regions as well as a specific integrated service delivery system in Seattle's skidrow area.

Abbreviations: AABD—aid to the aged, blind, and disabled; AB—aid to the blind; ADP—aid to dependent persons; AFDC—aid to families with dependent children; APTD—aid to the permanently and totally disabled; HEW—U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; HUD—U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development; OAA—old age assistance; and PA—public assistance.

(**Health Services**—Concluded from page 19).

delivering health services to public assistance recipients. One project experimented with a prepaid dental plan; another provided prepaid low cost health insurance; two provided health care services through case aides and one through a health care team; and one worked at developing a model health care system that could provide prepaid reimbursement.

Fiscal analysis

In fiscal year 1971 special Federal project funds of $4 million were available for new and continuing projects. Of the total appropriation $3,993,965 was obligated, leaving a balance of $6,035.

Table 4 lists the 60 new (16) and continuing (53) projects approved during the year requiring a grant from special Federal project funds. Table 5 lists the 38 new and continuing projects involving permission to waive plan requirements.

SPECIAL FEDERAL PROJECT FUNDS for the demonstration program in fiscal year 1972 amount to $4 million for new and continuing projects. About $2.5 million will be used to continue 42 projects. The balance will be used to support new projects according to the priorities of the 1972 Research and Demonstration Strategy.

Table 5. Demonstration projects approved during fiscal year 1971 requiring waiver of plan requirements and not involving a special Federal fund grant: new and continued

State	Project number	Title and purpose
Alabama	11-P-57133/4-01	**A demonstration day care center for children under three years of age.** Under contract with the University of Alabama, to operate a day care center for children under 3 years of age. This is one of seven projects in the Southeast receiving funds from the Donner Foundation.
	11-P-57121/4-01 (608)	**Legal services for the poor (University of Alabama Legal Aid Clinic of the School of Law).** To provide legal services to AFDC recipients by the Legal Aid Clinic of the University of Alabama (both students and practicing attorneys).
California	11-P-57077/9-02 (553)	**Voluntary deduction of food stamp purchase requirement from public assistance grant.** To enable voluntary deduction of food stamps from the public assistance grant for eligible recipients in 10 counties.
	11-P-57145/9-01	**Waiver request to provide services to former and potential recipients in Los Angeles County Model Cities demonstration areas and Los Angeles City Model Cities demonstration areas.** To demonstrate that concentrating social and rehabilitation services and resources in a defined area will meet the needs of residents of the Model Cities neighborhood area and improve their ability to function independently.
	11-P-57167/9-01	**San Diego Model Cities child care project.** To experiment with an around-the-clock, full-week operation of five centers for part-time child care for children from infancy through high school age.
Connecticut	11-P-57185/1-01	**Hartford Model Cities welfare outreach project.** To demonstrate a way to simplify the method of establishing and operating a compatibile service program as part of Hartford's Model Cities program.
District of Columbia	11-P-57166/3-01	**Pre-paid group and maintenance demonstration project.** To operate a prepaid health insurance program within the facilities of Group Health Association, Inc.
Florida	11-P-57126/4-01	**Southeast regional day care project—Florida day care program.** To establish a day care program for children from age 3 through high school age, involving use of volunteers and trained subprofessional staff members. A Donner Foundation project (see Alabama).
Georgia	11-P-57160/4-01	**Southeastern day care project—Georgia comprehensive child care program.** To provide high quality comprehensive child care services, including the range of services necessary to meet the needs of families in Fulton County, through a contract with Family Learning Centers, Inc.
Illinois	11-P-57189/5-01	**Pilot program to provide campership services with an educational component as authorized in Title IV-A services plan, 220.8 and 220.51.** To provide camping services with an educational component for 2,000 inner city children and 200 parents who are current, former, or potential AFDC recipients.
Iowa	11-P-57092/7-02 (577)	**Rural graduated work incentive experiment.** To provide medical services to current and potential AFDC recipients who are taking part in an OEO experimental income maintenance project.
Kentucky	11-P-57131/4-01	**Mobile day care project—Region IV.** To test the use of a mobile unit designed and equipped as a model to demonstrate the equipment needed to carry out a day care program, to instruct local people through community meetings about what is necessary to carry out such a program, and to serve as a center for staff training. A Donner Foundation project (see Alabama).
	11-P-57149/4-01	**Pilot project in ten-county area for "lock-in" procedure for overutilizers of Title XIX.** To test the feasibility of the "lock-in" procedure for physician and pharmacy services, that is, to limit the patient to use of the services of one provider for a given month.
Massachusetts	11-P-57168/1-01	**Flat grant payments.** To institute and study the feasibility of a new system of payments to AFDC recipients, consisting of quarterly payments equitably distributed to all recipients to meet additional needs.

Table 5. Demonstration projects approved during fiscal year 1971 requiring waiver of plan requirements and not involving a special Federal fund grant: new and continued—Continued

State	Project number	Title and purpose
Michigan	11-P-57148/5-02	**Berrien County experimental program.** To help move AFDC recipients toward economic independence by improving and expanding services.
Mississippi	11-P-57132/4-01	**Lowndes County day care center.** To establish and operate a day care center to serve children 2, 3, and 4 years old. A Donner Foundation project (see Alabama).
Missouri	11-P-57147/7-01	**Child care project—Child Day Care Association of St. Louis.** To purchase day care services for children who live in an impoverished area of St. Louis.
New Jersey	11-P-57151/2-01	**"New approach" food stamp demonstration.** To test the effects of a simplified eligibility system, and a more intensive program of outreach on participation rates. The waivers will allow for the voluntary deduction of the amount of the recipient's food stamp purchase from the public assistance payments.
New York	11-P-57097/2-02 (584)	**Food stamp deduction system.** To test the administrative feasibility of a system of voluntary deduction of food stamps from the public assistance grant for eligible recipients.
North Carolina	11-P-57138/4-03 (511)	**Mecklenburg County Department of Public Welfare agency-operated child-development-day care centers.** To furnish day care services to actual, former, and potential public assistance recipients, including families in which the father is unemployed, to pay for such care in the County, and to liberalize the current State plan definitions of former and potential applicants and recipients.
	11-P-57085/4-02 (589)	**Forsyth County Department of Social Services—Project TEAM.** To improve the delivery of special social services to the whole family by establishing better communications between the Department and active and potential recipients through community, group, and social casework methods.
	11-P-57135/4-01	**North Carolina special demonstration day care project (Donner Project).** To demonstrate a comprehensive day care service program at the county level that will include a training component and experiment with methods for creating approved resources and for delivering services not now possible under the State plan (see Alabama).
	11-P-57153/4-01	**Concentrated social services—Guilford County Department of Social Services.** To demonstrate how prompt and purposeful services can be delivered through a social service team to residents of the High Point model neighborhood.
Pennsylvania	11-P-57169/3-01	**Prepaid comprehensive health services for medical assistance eligibles.** To develop and implement a health maintenance plan at Temple University, in cooperation with Blue Cross of Philadelphia, that will provide comprehensive health services to persons eligible for medical assistance residing in defined areas of Philadelphia and to certain other residents of these areas.
South Carolina	11-P-57134/4-01	**South Carolina day care project.** To provide group day care for children 3-to 6-years old and to experiment with family day care homes. A Donner Foundation project (see Alabama).
	11-P-57154/4-01	**Public assistance voluntary withholding program.** To permit voluntary deduction of the food stamp purchase requirement from the public assistance grant.
Tennessee	11-P-57141/4-01	**Community Day Care Association.** To provide a family-centered comprehensive day care program for children from severely economically deprived families through a wide range of services in Shelby County and in Memphis.
	11-P-57127/4-01	**Donner Belmont Child Care Center.** To provide a program of total day care service for children from infancy through age 15 and their parents through a day care center, subunit family day care homes, volunteers, parent participation, and community resources. A Donner Foundation project (see Alabama).
Texas	11-P-57095/6-02 (582)	**Dallas Crossroads Community Center core services.** To operate a central information, referral, intake, and outreach program for social services in a poverty area.

Table 5. Demonstration projects approved during fiscal year 1971 requiring waiver of plan requirements and involving a special Federal fund grant: new and continued—Concluded

State	Project number	Title and purpose
Texas—Continued	11-P-57103/6-02 (592)	**Comprehensive services to families with children.** To provide a neighborhood-based comprehensive service program to all families with children in specific inner city areas, except those families with children in need of protection or families with children in SDPW foster homes.
	11-P-57119/6-02 (614)	**Texas demonstration of the extension and improvement of child care services.** To provide child care and development services to low income families in selected localities.
	11-P-57159/6-01	**Dallas Home Management Service.** To pool community resources for home management services for former, current, and potential public assistance recipients.
	11-P-57165/6-01	**Galveston Independent School District child care services.** To establish an early childhood center under the Galveston Independent School District to provide a high quality program of day care services for children 2, 3, and 4 years old who are culturally, socially, and economically deprived.
Virginia	11-P-57129/3-01	**Day care-child development centers.** To provide former, current, and potential AFDC recipients who are residents of the Model Cities area of Norfolk with day care service through agency-operated centers.
	11-P-57178/3-01	**Metropolitan Richmond legal aid project.** To extend legal services, using staff and volunteer attorneys, to public assistance recipients and other low income persons.
Washington	11-P-57078/0-02 (555)	**Food stamp purchase deduction.** To enable the voluntary deduction of food stamps from the public assistance grant for eligible recipients in 18 counties.
	11-P-57172/0-01	**Conbela Association demonstration project.** To help 22 former mental patients become self-sufficient and productive citizens.
West Virginia	11-P-57125/3-01	**Mail issuance of food stamps.** To provide a system for mailing food stamps to both public assistance and other low income households with the voluntary permission of recipients.

Abbreviations: ADC—State designation for AFDC; AFDC—aid to families with dependent children; OEO—Office of Economic Opportunity; and SDPW—State Department of Public Welfare.

RESEARCH NOTES

Changes in AFDC, 1969-71

STUDIES CONDUCTED by the National Center for Social Statistics of the Social and Rehabilitation Service, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare in the past 3 years provide comparative data for the caseload of the aid to families with dependent children (AFDC) program and indicate that the program increased by more than half between 1969 and 1971. Both studies were 1 percent sample surveys, with data inflated to represent all families receiving AFDC during the study months, May 1969 and January 1971.[1] The following analysis presents highlights of changes that occurred in demographic and program characteristics. To check trends during the 1960's, see the September-October 1970 issue of *Welfare in Review.*[2]

More than ever, the AFDC family is a city family. As in 1969, about three out of four AFDC families were living in metropolitan areas in 1971. The percentage increased from 72.4 to 74.4. The change represents an increase of nearly 28 percent since 1961 and continues a trend shown by AFDC study findings during the past 20 years.

Fewer Negro families are receiving AFDC. Negro families receiving AFDC dropped from 45.2 to 43.3 percent. There was little change in the other major racial groups (see table 1).

More families have received assistance for shorter periods, and there are more first-time recipient families. The median time on assistance, from the latest opening of the case until the study month, dropped from 23 to 20 months between 1969 and 1971; consequently, there are relatively fewer families receiving AFDC for 5 or more years (the decrease: from 22.8 to 17.7 percent). But families receiving AFDC for the first time increased from 59.7 to 65.8 percent.

Families are smaller; the ages of both parents and children are lower. AFDC families with only one or two recipient children increased from 49.6 to 54.2 percent; three in 10 families have only one child recipient. The average number of child recipients per family dropped, particularly in intact families (families with both a father and mother in the home). The average number of child recipients in families with one adult recipient dropped from 3 to 2.7; in families with two adult recipients from 3.9 to 3.5.

The downward shift in age among AFDC families includes both parents and children. Mothers under age 25 increased from 24.2 to 28.2 percent; fathers under age 25 from 13.2 to 15.7 percent.[3] The proportion of all children under age 6 rose from 32.5 to 34.3 percent.

Fewer families have illegitimate children and fewer families are multiparent (that is, have two or more children with different fathers or mothers). Families with one or more illegitimate children decreased from 45.1 to 43.5 percent. The proportion of all AFDC children who are illegitimate dropped from 32.1 to 31.4 percent. Multiparent families decreased from 31 to 27.6 percent.

Most AFDC families have only one parent in the home but there was a small increase in two-parent families. At the same time, more fathers in the home are unemployed. Families with two adult recipients increased from 11.9 to 12.9 percent. Families with mothers in the home increased from 91.7 to 92.8 percent; families with fathers in the home increased from 18.2 to 18.7 percent. The proportion of fathers in the home who are unemployed rose from one in four to one in three. (The number of unemployed

Table 1. Change in racial composition of AFDC families, 1969-71

Race	Year	
	1969 (percent)	1971 (percent)
White	48.1	48.3
Negro	45.2	43.3
American Indian	1.3	1.2
Other	.6	.7
Unknown	4.8	6.5

fathers as a proportion of all AFDC fathers increased from 4.6 to 6.1 percent.)

The increase in two-parent families was accompanied by a drop in families with orphans. Families with the father dead decreased from 5.5 to 4.3 percent; with the mother dead from 2.4 to 1.9 percent.

Fewer AFDC parents are mentally or physically incapacitated. Families with an incapacitated mother dropped from 13.7 to 11.3 percent; with an incapacitated father from 11.7 to 9.8 percent.

As in past years, the father is absent from the AFDC home primarily because of marital breakup, but even more so because separations and divorces increased. Close to half of all AFDC families need assistance because of marital breakup leading to the father's absence. Families with divorced parents increased from 13.7 to 14.2 percent; with parents separated from 13.7 to 15.8 percent, most without court decree. Also, as in the past several years, the second most important reason for the absence of the father from the home is the parents' unmarried status. The proportion of unmarried parents remained about the same (see table 2). There was, however, a slight decrease in deserting parents: for the father the figure dropped from 15.9 to 15.2 percent; for the mother from 3.3 to 2.9 percent.

About the same proportion of mothers are unemployed; but more are needed in the home. The general employment picture of AFDC mothers remains the same: one in four is either working or looking for work or has been accepted in a work or training program. Within each category, however, there are changes. Mothers working full time increased from 7.5 to 8.3 percent; mothers working part time or accepted for work or training programs decreased slightly (see figure 1). The absence of significant changes in the employment status of mothers is due to a counterbalancing of the above findings and small increases in mothers who have no marketable skill and in mothers who have never worked (the last from 22.8 to 23.5 percent). The increase in mothers needed in the home (from 35.5 to 37.1 percent) is probably due, in part, to the increase in the proportion of young children, as previously noted.

Table 2. Status of the AFDC father in the family, 1969-71

Status of father	Year	
	1969 (Percent)	1971 (Percent)
Absent		
Marital breakup, total	43.3	45.2
Deserted	15.9	15.2
Separated	13.7	15.8
Divorced	13.7	14.2
Not married to mother	27.9	27.7
In prison	2.6	2.1
Other reason	1.6	1.2
Other status (dead, incapacitated, unemployed, other)	24.6	23.6

Though care in the family home is still the most common form of child care, more children are being cared for elsewhere. In families with an employed mother or one enrolled in a work or training program, arrangements for care of children in their own homes decreased, whatever the age group of the children. The shift to care outside the home includes other persons' homes as well as group care centers, the least common form of child care of the three (see table 3). At the same time, the likelihood that children ages 6-14 will be unsupervised during the mother's absence at work or training increased (from 16.8 to 18.7 percent).

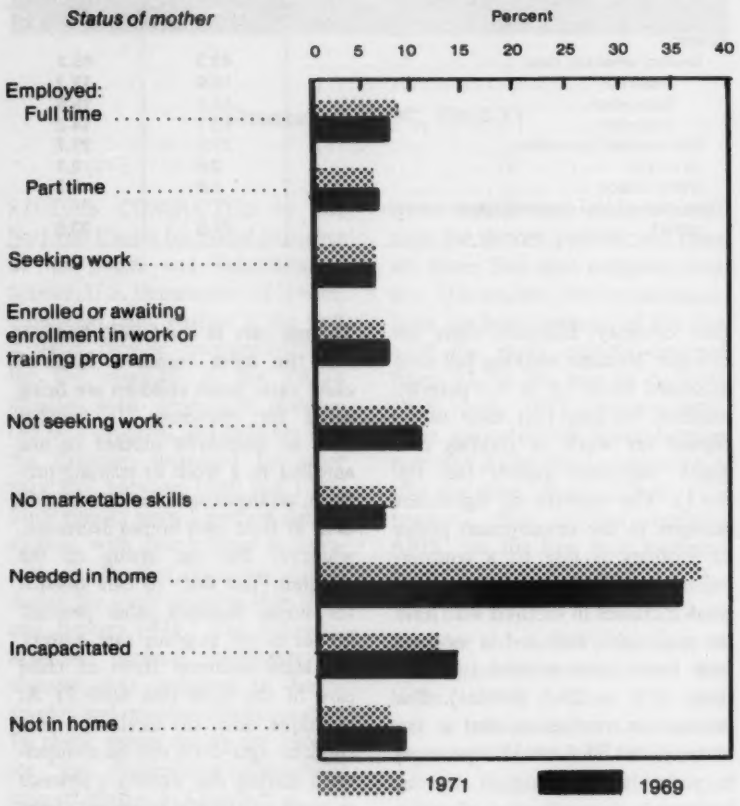
Table 3. Child care arrangements in AFDC families with mothers working or being trained, 1969-71

Child care arrangement[1]	Ages of children		
	Under 3 (percent)	3-5 (percent)	6-14 (percent)
In own home			
1969	44.7	42.6	40.2
1971	42.1	39.7	36.1
In someone else's home			
1969	35.6	30.9	20.3
1971	39.2	32.7	16.6
In group care center			
1969	5.6	13.1	2.7
1971	6.8	14.3	3.5

[1] *Residual categories not shown.*

Figure 1.

Status of the mother in AFDC families 1969-1971



AFDC parents have more education. AFDC mothers who have completed high school increased from 23.2 to 27.5 percent; fathers from 20.9 to 27.4 percent.[4]

More adult recipients have been referred to and are enrolled in the work incentive (WIN) program. Families with one or more members referred to WIN during the year before the study month increased from 13.1 to 17.6 percent; with one or more members enrolled from 6.2 to 8.8 percent. The increase was greater for mothers than for fathers. About one in three unemployed fathers was enrolled in a work or training program in the 1971 study month. WIN referrals and enrollments of children ages 16 and over also increased slightly but remained relatively low (see table 4).

Fewer mothers are migrants. Mothers who have never lived outside the State in which they are residing increased from 37.9 to 40.3 percent. Mothers who have lived elsewhere are most likely to have come from the South, though there was a slight shift from the South to the Northeast and the West as the last previous place of residence.

Employment-related services to AFDC families moved into first place. As in 1969, the types of services AFDC families most frequently received in 1971 were related to employment or work training; obtaining or using medical care; improving home and money management and housing; and securing support for children. Counseling, guidance, or other diagnostic services related to employment or training for employment moved from third to first place in specific services received. Family planning services, either with or without medical referral, also moved into the top group of services received by at least one in four families in 1971. Among families for whom a service plan had been developed and recorded during the year before the study month, there was a drop from 91.5 to 84.1 percent in those needing services. However, among all families there was a sharp rise, from 19.8 to 32.5 percent, in families for whom no service plan had been developed. Families receiving one or more services during the year before the study month decreased from 92.5 to 80.9 percent. The fact that the total AFDC caseload increased by 56.6 percent between the two studies probably affected adversely the ability of many agencies to develop plans for social services or to provide services.

More AFDC families have no source of income other than public assistance. Such families increased from 54.7 to 59.5 percent between 1969 and 1971. The increase in families whose heads are young is reflected

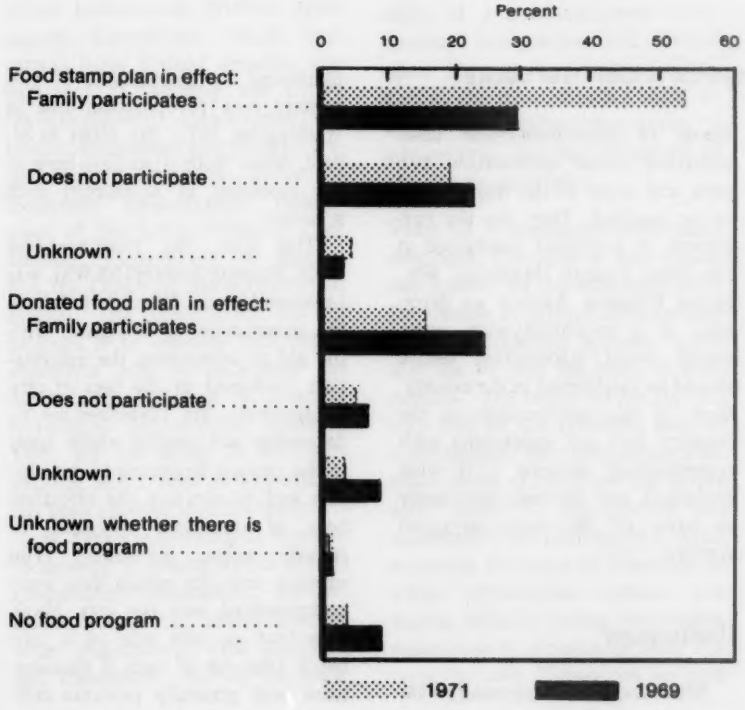
Table 4. Referral to and enrollment in WIN program, AFDC families, 1969-71

Family member	Referred		Enrolled	
	1969	1971	1969	1971
	(percent)	(percent)	(percent)	(percent)
Mother	9.1	12.5	3.7	6.0
Father	3.5	4.7	2.1	2.4
Children ages 16 and over	.9	1.0	.4	.5

in the drop (from 7.8 to 6.1 percent) in families receiving benefits under OASDI (old age, survivors, and disability insurance) in addition to AFDC. Families receiving partial support from the father decreased: from his earnings, from 3.6 to 2.8 percent; from his contributions when absent from the home, from 14.3 to 13.4 percent.

Figure 2.

Participation of AFDC families in U.S. Department of Agriculture food programs 1969-1971



AFDC families using food stamps almost doubled. AFDC families participating in the food stamp program of the U.S. Department of Agriculture rose from 29.6 to 52.9 percent between 1969 and 1971. Participants in the donated food plan (surplus commodities) correspondingly dropped from about one in four to one in seven AFDC families (see figure 2).

Implications of the changes

The data presented here indicate that the AFDC family's prospects for moving off public assistance rose between 1969 and 1971. The indicators on which the prospects are based fall into several major groupings: family health, length of time on AFDC, employment and training status, parents' educational level, and family characteristics.

- The indices of a healthy family have gone up. There are fewer incapacitated parents, and more of the fathers who are in the home are able-bodied, although unemployed. The considerable increase in the use of food stamps could mean that many more families now have adequate diets.
- The combination of more first-time recipients, a decrease in the average time on assistance, and a decrease in long-term assistance cases points to a rise in short-term use of AFDC for support during a time of money need.
- The employment and training status of family members has improved. More mothers work full time, and WIN referrals and enrollment of family members during a year's time have increased. In addition, employment or training services now reach more families than any other kind of agency service.
- The increase in the educational level of AFDC parents should better their opportunities to get jobs.
- Increases in small families and in young families mean that relatively fewer families are encumbered by the economic burden of many children or the labor market stigma of middle age.

Not all changes, however, are favorable. These, for instance, are not on the positive side for moving recipients from public assistance to economic independence:

- Younger adult AFDC recipients: when unemployment rates are much higher for persons under 25 than for persons over that age,[5] as they are now, lower parents' age can mean fewer job opportunities for adult recipients.

- More mothers lacking marketable skill and work experience: this finding, together with the need for more mothers in the home, means a general increase in the number of AFDC women who face barriers to employment.

- More children ages 6-14 unsupervised while the mother is working or in training: obviously, a child care need is not being met. Until the need is met, many mothers will not be willing to work.

- More families with no source of income other than public assistance: because families are receiving less support from absent fathers, as divorces and separations increase, one of the principal sources of income outside public assistance is decreasing. Families deprived of the father's support usually become more dependent on public assistance.

BETTY BURNSIDE

---

[1] *For complete study reports, see U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Social and Rehabilitation Service, National Center for Social Statistics,* Findings of the 1969 AFDC Study: Data by Census Division and Selected States, Part I, Demographic and Program Characteristics, *NCSS Report AFDC-3 (69) (Washington: The Center), Dec. 1970; and U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Social and Rehabilitation Service, National Center for Social Statistics,* Findings of the 1971 AFDC Study, Part I, Demographic and Program Characteristics, *DHEW Publication No. (SRS) 72-03756, NCSS Report AFDC-1 (71) (Washington: The Center), Dec. 22, 1971.*

[2] *David B. Eppley, "The AFDC Family in the 1960's,"* Welfare in Review, *Sept.-Oct. 1970, pp. 8-16.*

[3] *The age of most mothers is known, but the age of three in 10 fathers is not. Percentages are based on totals for persons whose age is known.*

[4] *The educational attainment is unknown for two in 10 mothers and about six in 10 fathers. Percentages are based on totals for persons whose education is known.*

[5] *"The Employment Situation: October 1971,"* NEWS, *U.S. Department of Labor, Office of Information, USDL-71-594, Nov. 5, 1971, table A-6.*

Miss Burnside is Chief, Assistance Payments Studies Section, Program Surveys and Statistics Staff, National Center for Social Statistics; Social and Rehabilitation Service; U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. She is the author of the article, "The Employment Potential of AFDC Mothers in Six States," carried in the July-August 1971 issue of Welfare in Review.

The Status of Communitywide Social Data Banks

INHERENT IN MAKING SOCIAL WELFARE more accountable to the public is the necessity to improve the information base of social needs and services. Current social reporting systems are usually agency-based rather than communitywide, and most are not set up to collect data on such key questions as the number of people in need, changes in need over time, and the effectiveness of service. The revolution in computer technology in the last two decades has led to considerable interest in some quarters in developing automated methods to improve the information base of social needs and services—and to considerable concern over possible unfavorable consequences in others.

These research notes review the status of communitywide computerized social information systems and some of the major issues to be resolved. They are the outgrowth of a project conducted at the Dane County (Madison), Wis., Social Planning Agency to determine if a communitywide, automated social information center should be established in the county. Most of the communities in the country that are developing such computerized systems (22) were contacted, and site visits were made to some of the more advanced systems.

Illustrations

What the term *communitywide social data banks* means can best be illustrated by descriptions of two systems now in operation—one in Washington, D.C., the other in St. Paul, Minn. Both cities have been in the forefront in developing such systems.

The first, the Neighborhood Early Warning System (NEWS), was developed by the District of Columbia government to integrate, with the aid of computers, the information contained in the files of city departments. Its objectives are to determine and predict which areas in the city are beginning to deteriorate and to measure the effectiveness of programs designed to remedy urban problems.[1] The smallest unit for which data were computerized was the city block face—that is, one side of a city block (the use of such a measurement unit generally prevents individual identification). The initial

program input of this geographic-based system consisted of selected data on the location of fires, housing code violations, unemployment compensation, and the Medicaid file (Medicaid, Medicare, public assistance, and medical care cases). Although considerable attention was given to setting up the system, limitations on funds permitted collection of data for only a 3-month period. The system's staff reported that the trial period was too short to allow more than minimal use of the practical data.

The second system, in St. Paul, Minn., is one of six projects being conducted under Federal grants to develop automated integrated municipal information systems (the other cities are Wichita Falls, Tex.; Charlotte, N.C.; Long Beach, Calif.; Reading, Pa.; and Dayton, Ohio). These six projects are being directed and coordinated by the Urban Information Systems Interagency Committee, which represents these Federal agencies: Department of Housing and Urban Development; Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; Department of Commerce; Office of Economic Opportunity; Department of the Army; Office of Civil Defense; Department of Justice; and the Office of Management and Budget. The purpose of the six projects is to identify worthwhile objectives and to determine the merits and feasibility of designing municipal information systems. They are for either 2- or 3-year periods, and a total of $12 million has been appropriated for them.

St. Paul was awarded its contract to develop a system within human resources: education, welfare, health, recreation, library services, voter registration, vital statistics, and manpower. One of the major intentions of the system, the St. Paul Integrated Municipal Information System, is to integrate individual data between human resources agencies, that is, to develop a data bank on each person served by an agency to include such items as name, social security number, sex, birth date, and address. The last item can be used to compile data by geographic areas. The development of the program is in its initial phase, and the selection of specific items to include in the system began recently. Confidentiality is, of course, a major issue. According to the center's director (Norman P. Yarosh), their method is to have each agency included in the system define what material is confidential and not to be included.

Issues to be resolved

Before determining the feasibility of a communitywide computerized information bank, several issues have to be resolved. They include the value of such a bank, its objectives, confidentiality, access of information, and the willingness of agencies to participate.

Value of a communitywide social data bank. The value of such a bank will depend on the uses made of it. Our review of several computerized social information systems found that use to date has been, at best, minimal. The major reason for this may well be the primitive state of development. That communitywide information systems are still in the early stages of development was underscored by Dial in 1968. After screening 10 years of literature on urban information systems and visiting officials having the longest experience in developing such systems, he said, "There are no such systems in existence today."[2] Although improved computer technology theoretically provides new ways to improve the social information base, evaluation of the use of the output will have to be delayed until sufficient data have been gathered and integrated into current demonstration projects with such systems.

The value of an information system depends not only on use but also on cost. Because community-wide automated information systems are in the early stages of development, even crude estimates of developmental and operational costs are not available. It is known, however, that such systems are expensive. The St. Paul project, for example, is budgeted at upwards of a million dollars for its 2-year development period.[3]

Objectives of social data banks. Closely related to the value of an information system are the objectives for the systems (use will directly depend on objectives). The term *computerized social information system* is global, referring to such widely diverse functions as these: automated cost accounting of social programs; assessing program effectiveness; use of social indicators to measure social progress or retrogression over time; a reporting system to obtain reliable information on the number of persons and families receiving various community services; a reporting system on variables associated with various social problems; an automated social service exchange; an automated inventory of community services for information and referral; and a reporting system to compile data on persons, for example, school performance, employment experience, contact with community agencies, including law

enforcement authorities, and organizational memberships.

Because the development of communitywide social information systems is elementary, the review did not find documented evidence that a decentralized, computerized system could meet any objective effectively and economically. This conclusion should not be interpreted to mean that the development of integrated automated social information systems should be discouraged. Carefully conceived projects appear to be needed to identify worthy objectives and uses of such systems.

To illustrate: the primary goal of NEWS is to identify areas in Washington that are beginning to deteriorate. The method used to accomplish this goal is to have city departments routinely feed information on various social items into a communitywide computer system.

Another method that could be used to accomplish the goal is illustrated by the one-point-in-time sampling method used in the Social Report for Dane County,[4] prepared by the Dane County Social Planning Agency. Staff members compiled data from community agencies and from the 1968 Census (a pretest of the 1970 Census in Dane County), without having agencies feed data into a central computer system continuously. In a few years data can again be obtained from community agencies on similar variables in the same way to determine how social conditions have changed. Through experimentation with both methods, the merits and costs of both could be clarified.

Confidentiality. Confidentiality is based on an implicit or explicit agreement between a professional worker and his client. It is a basic component of the client-professional relationship and requires that disclosures made within the relationship be used only for the client's good and shared only with persons authorized by the client or required by law. Social workers and health professional workers will need to be alert in the coming years to developments in computerizing social data on clients, for the protection of confidentiality may be vitally affected. Communitywide information systems are a threat to preserving confidentiality, as they are capable of integrating data on a person from every conceivable source throughout his life.

There are two basic types of computerized information systems. One is an anonymous statistical information system that contains data on people either in the aggregate or as records identified by numbering systems unique to each organizational unit supplying them. Because the key to individual identification is in each organizational unit, this type of information system is unlikely to threaten privacy or confidentiality. It could only breech confidentiality unknowingly through multiple cross classification; for example, records might identify a well-known person with such information as this in his file: Negro movie star, former player for the Cleveland Browns, active in developing business enterprises for Negroes, has had some widely publicized contacts with law authorities. Once a person was identified, the other information on him in the system would then also be retrievable.

The second type, intelligence or dossier information systems, presents much greater danger: they directly identify persons or families (for instance, by name, home address, or social security number). However, because the data base is on a person individually, data files can be integrated between agencies or persons with the output being potentially much more useful. Legal authorities usually agree that free and informed consent by the client about the data contained in the system, along with proper safeguards against unauthorized access, are the safest methods of preventing violation of confidentiality in dossier-type systems.[5] The difficulty with this type is that free and informed consent is likely to limit the scope and, therefore, the usefulness of such systems because a substantial number of clients may question the purpose and withhold consent. In the future, development of data banks on persons individually may well involve complicated judicial decisions regarding what data should be confidential and what legal procedures should be established to safeguard confidentiality.

Access to information. Closely related to confidentiality are questions about who should have access to the information and what procedures should be established to assure that unauthorized persons cannot obtain access. The question of who should have access will, of course, involve policy decisions by the directors of the information systems, and, if all goes well, the consent of the agencies and organizations supplying and using the data. Undoubtedly conflicts will arise; for example, a planning agency may well want to publish statistics on high school dropouts that a school may prefer for sound educational reasons not to become public knowledge. In addition, if the information system is of the dossier type, legal questions may

well arise about whether local, State, and Federal investigatory agencies shall have access to the information, and if granted access, what types of data these agencies want should be collected.

Questions have also been raised about the security of computers as repositories of information,[6] that is, how to prevent unauthorized persons from obtaining access to integrated data. Barran in 1966 cautioned against the hasty development of a national data bank and pointed out that weaknesses in computer and communications systems leave them "wide open to tampering by anyone sufficiently intelligent and motivated enough to take advantage of their weak spots."[7] In the 5 years since 1966, there has been considerable discussion and a number of technological suggestions for increasing security. Hoffman in a recent survey of such technical means concluded:

> Several types of controls have been proposed to insure privacy: threat monitoring, privacy transformations, access management. . . . Some hardware counter-measures, such as physical keys which record the key number on a file or output device, have also been suggested. Unfortunately, no systems, hardware or software, simulated or actual, have been built which enable us to evaluate the various costs of processing time, storage space, etc., of these methods. There is almost a complete absence of implementation of nearly all the proposed techniques.[8]

His conclusion underscores the need for technological experimentation to develop and test security safeguards.

Willingness of agencies to participate. Noble and Wechsler, investigating the willingness of directors of health and welfare agencies in metropolitan Boston to contribute agency data to such a system,[9] found that 32 percent of these executives were unwilling, only 24 percent were willing to provide abstracts of records on the patients and clients their organizations served, and only 47 percent were willing to share budgetary and operational data on their organization. The argument that a community information system would help improve health and welfare services to the community and, therefore, that organizations and the persons they serve would gain more than they lost from sharing data was not overwhelmingly convincing to the executives taking part in the study.[10] Reasons mentioned for not being willing to share data primarily include concern over how the data would be used, confidentiality, and how such a system would affect the budgetary decisions of supporting sources.

Given the elementary stage of information systems and the many crucial issues still needing to be resolved, it seems reasonable for directors of health and welfare agencies to be wary of contributing data to such a system. Yet, unless almost every community agency contributes data, the coverage and consequent value of communitywide information systems will be substantially reduced.

Conclusion

Communitywide social information systems offer considerable promise for improving the information base on social needs and services. At present, however, several key issues remain unresolved:

- What are the productive and economical objectives of such systems? What are their uses?
- How can confidentiality be safeguarded?
- Who should have access to the data?
- What technological controls will prevent unauthorized persons from obtaining access to the data?
- Will community agencies be willing to make their data available to such systems?

Of these issues perhaps the first two are the more nearly crucial for future development of such systems.

FOR COMMUNITIES considering developing communitywide information systems, the conclusions arrived at in Dane County after reviewing demonstration projects throughout the Nation may be useful. It was decided that issues such as confidentiality and productive objectives for such systems should be further resolved before the county develops an integrated, automated system. The demonstration projects that the Federal Government is now supporting in six cities (along with efforts in other communities) should provide answers to some of the key issues. Dane County also decided that the cost to the community, on its own, to become involved in such a development project would be prohibitive. Furthermore, another danger was recognized: if such an information system were to be developed now, it could become an "orphan" because its format and data would be inconsistent with guidelines that will be developed within a few years for such systems. A decision regarding whether to develop a communitywide system in Dane County was delayed until these issues could be resolved. Instead, recommendations were made for developing social indicators in the community and for improving agency-based reporting systems (in-

cluding computerizing data contained within large agencies).[11]

CHARLES ZASTROW

[1] *Joan E. Jacoby, "The Neighborhood Early Warning System—Design and Development,"* Socio-Economic Planning Science, *vol. 4, 1970, p. 123-29. This article contains a more nearly complete description of this information system.*

[2] *O.E. Dial, "Urban Information Systems: A Bibliographic Essay" (unpublished report) (Cambridge: Urban Systems Laboratory, Massachusetts Institute of Technology), 1968, p. i.*

[3] *Norman P. Yarosh, "A Municipal Information System as an Aid to Social Planning" (unpublished paper) (St. Paul: St. Paul Municipal Information System), 1970, p. 4.*

[4] *Dane County Social Planning Agency,* Social Report for Dane County *(Madison: The Agency), Aug. 1970.*

[5] *See William J. Curran, et al., "Privacy, Confidentiality and Other Legal Considerations in the Establishment of a Centralized Health-Data System,"* New England Journal of Medicine, *July 31, 1969, pp. 241-47.*

[6] *See John H. Noble, Jr., "Protecting the Public's Privacy in Computerized Health and Welfare Information Systems,"* Social Work, *Jan. 1971, pp. 35-41.*

[7] *Testimony of Paul Barran contained in* Proceedings of Special Subcommittee on Invasion of Privacy, *Subcommittee Hearing of the Committee on Government Operations, U.S. House of Representatives, 89th Congress (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office), 1966, p. 120.*

Dr. Zastrow is Assistant Professor, Department of Sociology-Anthropology-Social Welfare, University of Wisconsin-Whitewater.

[8] *Lance J. Hoffman, "Computers and Privacy: A Survey,"* Computing Surveys, *June 1969, p. 96.*

[9] *John H. Noble, Jr., and Henry Wechsler, "Obstacles to Establishing Communitywide Information Systems in Health and Welfare,"* Welfare in Review, *Nov.-Dec. 1970, pp. 18-26.*

[10] *Ibid., p. 24.*

[11] *Dane County Social Planning Agency, "Improving the Social Information Base in Dane County" (unpublished paper) (Madison: The Agency), July 1971.*

Undergraduate Training Of AFDC Caseworkers

PRESENT-DAY SOCIAL PROBLEMS and increasing public understanding of their complexity are adding importance to the social caseworker's role in our society and the training he needs for his work.[1] A master of social work degree is usually necessary for employment as a professional worker, and social work has become institutionalized.[2] The profession has directed considerable attention toward the contents of undergraduate college training as the floor under successful performance in graduate school and views the teaching of social work methods at the undergraduate level as just one aspect of a whole curricular pattern involving both horizontal connecting steps and vertical sequential steps.[3] However, not all social caseworkers are following "sequential patterns" for social work employment. Some are entering the profession as caseworkers in the aid to families with dependent children (AFDC) program without formal training in social work.

This article presents findings about the undergraduate training of a group of social caseworkers who did not have graduate level training in social work before employment as caseworkers. Unlike many new members of the profession of social work, their training was as apprentices, supplemented by intensive inservice training.[4]

A review of statements in the catalogs of graduate schools of social work shows that these schools take a variety of positions on undergraduate preparation, although in practice most "place relatively little importance on holding to whatever requirement they have set forth."[5] Many appear to emphasize liberal arts and social welfare majors. We found such varying statements as these:

> Any undergraduate liberal arts major is as appropriate as any other in preparing students for entrance into graduate professional education.
>
> Any undergraduate major in the liberal arts which has an emphasis on the social-behavioral sciences is appropriate preparation for entrance into graduate professional education.
>
> A major in social welfare along the lines suggested by the revised Guide published by the CSWE [Council on Social Work Education] is the preferred preparation for entrance into graduate professional school.
>
> In institutions where there is a graduate school of social work and an undergraduate program in social welfare, the assumption is that this particular program is the preferred preparation for entrance into graduate professional education.[6]

Source and nature of data

The data analyzed here were obtained during the summer of 1970 from personal interviews with 35 women and three men AFDC caseworkers in New Hampshire, as part of a general study of ways to overcome poverty. The phase of the study reported on emphasizes the administrative problems and characteristics and opinions of AFDC caseworkers.

Most of the analysis is based on simple cross-tabulations of selected variables by the type of presocial work college education. The case-

workers were placed in two categories based on their presocial work college education: type I includes caseworkers whose undergraduate college majors were economics, education, history, English, home economics, or political science; type II caseworkers whose undergraduate majors were psychology, social psychology, sociology, social science, or social service. Thus type I workers did not pursue an undergraduate program emphasizing social-behavioral science, but type II did. The number of AFDC caseworkers by undergraduate major was as follows:

Major	Number
Type I	
History	5
English	4
Home Economics	3
Education	2
Economics	1
Political Science	1
Total	16
Type II	
Sociology	10
Psychology	4
Social Service	4
Social Psychology	2
Social Science	2
Total	22

Result

The results of the simple cross-tabulations are presented in table 1. A comparison between the AFDC caseworkers, types I and II, by such variables as age, place where they "grew up," years employed as a social worker, years employed by present agency, reasons for becoming a social worker, location of undergraduate college, training for counseling, and intentions to continue career in social work, using the Chi-square test, indicate no significant differences between the two types at the .05 probability level.[7] The general null hypothesis that there are no differences between type I and type II AFDC caseworkers for the variables tested is not rejected.

Table 1. Distribution of AFDC caseworkers by types of presocial work, college education, and selected characteristics

Item	All caseworkers		Presocial work college education[1]	
			Type I[2]	Type II[3]
Age	*(Percent)*	*(Number)*	*(Number)*	*(Percent)*
Under 25	37	14	4	10
25-29	26	10	5	5
30 and over	37	14	7	7
Grew up in				
New Hampshire	53	20	9	11
Other	47	18	7	11
Location of undergraduate college (State)				
New Hampshire	53	20	8	12
Other	47	18	8	10
Reasons for becoming a social worker				
Humanitarian	71	27	9	18
Just a Job	29	11	7	4
Years employed as social worker				
Less than 3	55	21	7	14
3 or more	45	17	9	8
Years employed by present agency				
Less than 3	60	23	9	14
3 or more	40	15	7	8
Training for counseling				
Adequate	60	23	10	13
Inadequate	40	15	6	9
Intention to continue career in social work				
5 years or less	26	10	5	5
More than 5	32	12	4	8
Indefinitely	42	16	7	9

[1] *Chi-square not significant at the 5 percent level.* [2] *Persons with undergraduate major in history, English, home economics, education, economics, or political science.* [3] *Persons with undergraduate major in sociology, psychology, social service, social psychology, or social science.*

Age. The 38 AFDC caseworkers studied ranged in age from 22 to 65 years, with a mean age of 33 years, a modal age of 23 years, and a median age of 28. As a group, they were relatively young, though a few were in their late 50's and 60's.

Residence. Of the 38 caseworkers studied, 20, or 53 percent, grew up in New Hampshire, and an equal proportion received their undergraduate college education in New

Hampshire. But with 47 percent being educated in other States, New Hampshire is benefiting from the investment of other States in elementary, secondary, and undergraduate college education. Yet there appears to be an opportunity for persons raised and educated in the State to take part more fully in this type work.

Interest, experience, and training. Each respondent was asked, "Why did you become a social worker?" As was anticipated, multiple widely varied responses were received. They varied from idealism to practicality: from "I hate seeing people needing help and not being able to get it" to "It was the first job offer I received." The summarized responses are shown in table 2.

To gain further insight into the reason for a respondent becoming a social worker, individual responses were placed in two categories based on an indication of a humanitarian or a practical reason. The results of this classification show that 27 (71 percent) indicated a humanitarian reason. Though 11 became social workers because it was "just a job," only three indicated that they found social work unrewarding. And 92 percent (35 persons) indicated that their work in the welfare agency had been fulfilling.

As would be expected because of the relatively young age of the caseworkers, the persons studied had relatively short employment histories as social workers. About 55 percent (21 persons) had been employed as social workers for less than 3 years, and 60 percent (23 persons) had been with their present employers less than 3 years.

All of the respondents had received inservice training since joining the agencies employing them. But only four of the 38 had taken formal courses in a graduate school of social work during the same period.

Because counseling recipients is a major responsibility of AFDC caseworkers, each respondent was asked to rate his training for counseling. Of them 23 said their training for counseling was adequate, 12 inadequate, and three very poor.

The relative young age of the caseworkers and the high proportion with less than 3 years' experience in social work suggests a high rate of job turnover among them. An actual indication of a high rate of job turnover was gained when responses to the question, "How long do you intend to pursue your career in this field?" was tabulated. Of the 38 respondents 10 planned to continue in social work less than 5 years, 12 for more than 5 years, and 16 indefinitely.

Table 2. Reason for becoming a social worker

Reason	Number of times mentioned[1]
Desire to help people	27
Substitute for teaching	10
Interest in children	10
Wanted social work as career	10
Friends and family in social work	10
Just a job	11

[1] *Number of responses exceeds number of respondents because of multiple responses to the question.*

Conclusions

An important observation to be made from the data is the trivial size of the differences between AFDC caseworkers with undergraduate majors in social-behavioral science and AFDC caseworkers with undergraduate majors in such fields as English, history, political science, and economics for the characteristics studied. This result raises questions about the emphasis placed on undergraduate training in social-behavioral science and the preference social work agencies frequently give to applicants with this kind of training.

Because the present study did not include an evaluation of job

[1] *Kurt Reichart, "Current Developments and Trends in Social Work Education in the United States,"* Journal of Education for Social Work, *Fall 1970, pp. 39-40.*

[2] *Thomas H. Shey, "How American Social Students View Their Profession: Highlights of a Recent Survey,"* Applied Social Studies: An International Journal of Social Work Education, Administration and Research, *Oct. 1970, p. 137.*

[3] *Herbert Bisno, "A Theoretical Framework for Teaching Social Work Methods and Skills, with Particular Reference to Undergraduate Social Welfare Education,"* Journal of Education for Social Work, *Fall 1969, p. 6.*

[4] *Burt Shachter, "Relevance of Direct Practice for Today's Social Work Educator,"* Journal of Education for Social Work, *Fall 1969, p. 39.*

[5] *Erma Meyerson, "Educational Linkages Between Undergraduate Education in Social Welfare and Professional Social Work Education,"* Journal of Education for Social Work, *Fall 1969, p. 33.*

[6] *Loc. cit.*

[7] *The limits of the use of the Chi-square statistic to test for differences between two categories when a small number of observations are recognized.*

performance either by the supervisor or the recipient, no conclusion can be reached concerning the relationship between presocial work education and job performance. However, by the variables studied (reason for becoming a caseworker, job satisfaction, belief that training for counseling was adequate, and intention to continue in social work), the differences between the two types of caseworkers studied are not statistically significant. To the extent that these variables contribute to individual and agency morale, the ability of the individual worker to "do his job" and the ability of the agency to perform "its program mission," the finding of no differences is significant.

The high rate of worker turnover suggests that further study of training and responsibilities on the job is necessary to identify the reasons for the turnover and to determine whether it relates to current training.

Dr. Le Ray is a sociologist, Economic Development Division, Economic Research Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture, stationed at the New Hampshire Agricultural Experiment Station, Durham. Dr. Bowring is Professor of Resource Economics, Institute of Natural and Environmental Resources, University of New Hampshire, Durham. The research on which they report was supported by the New Hampshire Agricultural Experiment Station as a contribution to Regional Project NE-68, "Paths Out of Poverty," under cooperative agreement with the Economic Research Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture. Published with the approval of the Director of the New Hampshire Agricultural Experiment Station as Scientific Contribution No. 608.

THE AFDC CASEWORKERS STUDIED were relatively young, a high proportion had been employed as social caseworkers for less than 3 years, and a high proportion had entered the profession for humanitarian reasons. They were satisfied with their profession and considered their training for counseling adequate. A third planned to remain in the profession for more than 5 years, and 42 percent were indefinite about their future in social work. Many of them, because of their youth and enthusiasm, could form a nucleus around which a strong group of AFDC caseworkers could be developed. Many of them could probably be trained for advancement to supervisory and administrative positions with their agencies.

NELSON L. Le RAY
JAMES R. BOWRING

BOOK NOTES

The Journalist As Social Crusader

Paul U. Kellogg and The Survey: Voices for Social Welfare and Social Justice, by Clarke A. Chambers. University of Minnesota Press, 1971, 283 pp., $10.

ABOUT 7 YEARS AGO Clarke Chambers visited me to talk about *The Survey* and its editor, Paul Kellogg, in preparation for his projected biography of man and magazine. As I had served on the staff of *The Survey* (including the *Survey Graphic* and the *Survey Midmonthly*), he thought I could contribute some information about that once great voice for social justice and its dedicated editor.

"You've started too late," I said. "Most of the principles in *The Survey* drama—like the magazine—are dead." I pointed out that Florence Loeb Kellogg, Paul Kellogg's sister-in-law and a member of the editorial staff since the early 1920's, had died the year before his (Chamber's) interview with me; Loula Lasker, a 4-days-a-week, 8-hours-a-day volunteer for a quarter of a century, had died shortly before Florence; and Leon Whipple and John Palmer Gavitt, contributing editors for many years, had died shortly after. And I mentioned others who had only briefly survived the journal on which they had spent the major energies of their adult lives: the elegant Ann Reed Brenner, who began her association with Paul Kellogg as a staff member of the 1909 Pittsburgh Social Survey he was then directing; Beulah Amidon, the brilliant if sometimes caustic specialist in education and industrial relations who was the de facto, if undesignated, managing editor in the journal's last sinking days; Mollie Condon, the perky circulation manager, who came out of the woman's suffrage movement; and Paul Kellogg himself, the remarkable man whose spirit was *The Survey*. All these people had been intimately involved with *The Survey* in the days of the (to me) legendary Arthur, Paul's practical and beloved brother and managing editor, from whose sudden death in 1934 none of the staff ever seemed to quite recover.

"You should have talked to *them*," I said.

Dr. Chambers calmly assured me that conversations with contemporaries of the subject are not so important to a good biography as the perspective of time and the historian's objectivity.

I was skeptical but wrong. After reading through five bookshelves of *The Survey* and its predecessor journals, studying 34 file case drawers of *Survey* correspondence and papers, and interviewing surviving members of the board and staff, friends, associates, and relatives of Paul Kellogg, Dr. Chambers has presented a sensitive and, I think, essentially true picture of an extraordinary man and the journal he piloted for nearly half a century. Though the book contains some unimportant but annoying inaccuracies, it succeeds in portraying the distinguishing features of Paul Kellogg as an editor and as a human being, and of *The Survey* in its longtime role as lodestar for social workers and other professional persons concerned with social welfare in its broadest sense.

In the Chambers book "PK," as *The Survey* staff called their chief, comes alive not only as the creative and meticulous editor (born with a blue pencil in his hand and an incurable tendency to metaphor) who could "see around corners" to what was coming next on the social scene but also as the humanist par excellence, the superb prober and listener who had an abiding faith in the rationality and good will of people. The book shows how the journal this man shaped took on his character—committed to the common good, adept at learning the facts surrounding all sides of a question and interpreting them humanely, calm in the faith that knowledge of the facts would lead to appropriate social action, tenacious in the face of adversity, prescient in anticipating society's concern by years or even decades.

Chambers begins his book by describing the period during which *The Survey* was conceived—the pre-Kellogg days toward the end of the last century when the Community Organization Society of New York established its journal *Charities* under the editorship of Edward T. Devine. In a few years Dr. Devine took on two young newspapermen, brothers, from Kalamazoo, Mich.—Paul (in 1901) and Arthur Kellogg (in 1902)—as assistant editors, and from this association eventually grew *The Survey*. First, however, *Charities* had its sights raised from a preoccupa-

tion with social agency reports to the broader issues of the social environment by merger in 1905 with the *Commons*, the voice of the settlement house movement, to become *Charities and the Commons*. The name *The Survey* was adopted in 1909, when the magazine was publishing the findings of the year-long social study of industrial Pittsburgh undertaken by Paul Kellogg and a staff of specialists—the first social survey of its kind.

When Dr. Devine left *The Survey* in 1912, Paul became editor-in-chief and Arthur managing editor. That year too saw the formation of Survey Associates, an organization of persons from a variety of professions and of informed (and often wealthy) laymen sufficiently dedicated to the process of social exploration to support the journal with annual contributions of $10 to $1,000 or more. Structural ties with the New York Charity Organization were broken, but the Russell Sage Foundation, which had supported the Pittsburgh Survey, continued to contribute large amounts to the journal's support almost but not quite to its end, over 40 years later.

Having been born out of social work practice, *The Survey* continued to report in this field, but under Paul Kellogg's direction its emphasis leaned heavily toward the exploration of social problems. Eventually, in 1923, the journal became a semimonthly with two alternate forms: the illustrated, global *Survey-Graphic*, which took on social exploration, and the plainer (with a smaller allowance) *Survey Midmonthly*, which confined its attention to developments and issues in social work practice, though its sights were never so narrowly focused on the refinements of an increasingly self-conscious profession that it lost "social" perspective. Not until the tightening vise of financial difficulties forced a drastic paring of expenses in 1949 did the two magazines merge back again into one, *The Survey*.

As Chambers points out, it was part of Paul Kellogg's magic to win and keep the backing of influential men and women of wealth while exposing the regressive effects of industrial policies on the lives of human beings. No detractor of the "system," he held to a steadfast belief that reform would follow "enlightenment." By gathering on his board (along with persons prominent in the professions) shining examples of enlightened wealth and power—Edward Ryerson, Harold Swift, Judge Julian Mack, Mrs. Henry Goddard Leach, William Rosenwald, and Beardsley Ruml, to name a few—he opened the way for important financial support. But only once, Chambers notes, was the editor ever asked to knuckle under to the board—at the time of the pre-World War I pacifist-interventionist controversy. Paul, a pacifist himself, had solicited articles on both sides of the question, but members of the board thought he should leave the issue alone. That impasse was settled by the declaration of war, but the board never again attempted to interfere with editorial decisions.

Chambers' book is a history not only of a man and a journal but also of the reform movements of the first half of this century. Thus we see Paul Kellogg in 1912 working with a committee to get progressive measures incorporated into the platform of the Bull Moose party; calling on the Governor of Massachusetts in 1927 to get a stay of execution for Sacco and Vanzetti to allow time for a review of their trial; and in 1934-35, as a member of the Advisory Council to the President's Committee on Economic Security, urging the Roosevelt Administration to adopt a program to include a comprehensive system of social insurances, the protection of collective bargaining, the establishment of minimum wages, an orderly system of Federal relief, measures for consumer protection, Federal loans for low income housing, and a larger degree of cooperative planning with basic industries.

The Survey, however, stayed out of politics, riveting its attention on facts and their interpretation. But the questions the journal explored were always in dire need of attention: long hours and unsafe working conditions in the steel mills, child labor in the coal mines and textile industry, racial segregation, unemployment, poor housing, tuberculosis, and venereal disease.

The problems were dismal but the reporting was not—Paul Kellogg insisted that his authors translate facts and figures into human terms. The *Survey Graphic* used dramatic pictures, drawings, and charts and even published poems. Louis Hine's documentary photographs of 10-year-old boys returning from the coal mines and equally young girls at their spinning machines in a textile factory are grim reminders of what child labor was like early in this century. Hendrik Willem Van Loon, who drew the *Graphic's* insignia (a ship in full sail on a voyage of exploration), produced many illustrations and covers. According to Chambers, Hine and Van Loon were both young and unrecognized when Paul Kellogg drew on their talents.

Experiments in social service, health care, child welfare, education, industrial relations, race relations, mental hygiene, prison re-

form, delinquency control—all these were grist to *The Survey's* mill (to use a favorite PK expression) long before the commercial press deemed them worthy of attention.

In the prosperous 1920's, Chambers asserts, the country's waning interest in reform beclouded *The Survey's* course. The *Graphic* turned to the mounting interest in psychology, international affairs, and the arts, "not," said Paul Kellogg, "as competing interests, but as forces which can come to the refreshment of movements for public welfare." The *Midmonthly* reflected social work's preoccupation with refining casework skill and in reporting the growing alignment between casework and psychiatry, the emphasis on confidentiality between caseworker and client, and the effects of the increasing complexity of social work knowledge and technical know-how on relationship between boards and their staffs. But neither journal lost sight of the poverty that still existed in the midst of plenty, and in 1928 when the American press in general still painted the country as riding high on the wings of prosperity, the *Graphic* carried a carefully researched article by Beulah Amidon reporting indisputable signs of growing unemployment and trouble ahead.

Early in the Great Depression, both *Surveys* presented evidence that neither county nor State nor voluntary agencies could meet the immediate needs of the great mass of unemployed men and women throughout the country. Both personally and in the pages of the journals, Paul Kellogg pressed for Federal assistance to the States for emergency relief as well as for permanent measures to even the peaks and depths of the business cycle and to alleviate the effects on its helpless victims. Chambers reports that in the eyes of Paul Kellogg and his staff the New Deal was great as far as it went but that it never went far enough. The how-to of its many measures dominated the *Midmonthly*. Gertrude Springer's articles, "Miss Bayley Says—", written to help the thousands of untrained relief workers throughout the country see and respect the individuality of their clients, became a series of pamphlets that sold by the tens of thousands.

Reading Chambers' book makes one wonder, "What's new today?" Long ago Paul Kellogg espoused a basic method for saving democracy: comprehensive, decentralized economic and social planning, providing opportunities for citizens to participate in the decisions that affect their lives. Back in the 1920's he advocated a system of national health insurance. Long before the U.S. Supreme Court decision of 1954, his journal called attention to the degrading effects of racial segregation not only to those being shut out from the mainstream of American life but also on the whole fabric of American society. There were three special issues on desegregation, the first when the journal was still called *Charities*. In another special issue—in the 1920's—written and edited by Negroes, *The Survey* called attention to the intellectual, cultural, and scientific contributions of Negroes at the time—a natural for today's black studies programs. In the early part of the century, when the terms venereal disease and birth control were rarely mentioned in tones louder than a whisper and almost never in the press, *The Survey* carried frank discussions of both. And in January 1950 it carried an article on "ecology," a term so unfamiliar to the public at the time that the author had to define it.

Death to the journal came from multiple causes in May 1952, not April as Chambers reports. But Chambers does make clear that the dying was protracted and painful. The precipitating cause was a combination of rising publishing costs and a falling away of support from wealthy patrons, once dependable foundations, and the rank and file of social workers who had once regarded *The Survey* as their "bible." Perhaps a man more vigorous than the then aging and sick Paul Kellogg and as gifted as his brother Arthur in administration and financial management could have kept *The Survey* afloat. But the journal *was* Paul Kellogg, and rather than taking action to save it, the board simply resigned, giving him authority to appoint a new board, which he did. As soon as the new group saw the gravity of the financial situation, it immediately closed up shop. Chambers doesn't tell of the suddenness with which the loyal, long underpaid staff members—including secretaries pushing 60 who had come to *The Survey* in their teens—learned that they were without jobs or separation pay or of the failure of the board of nationally prominent social workers even to send them a note of thanks.

Chambers rightly points out that it is impossible to assess *The Survey's* effect on social programs in this country. Some of the problems the journal analyzed have been alleviated at least in part—by union management agreements, Federal and State legislation, and enlightened administrative policies—but how much of the credit, if any, *The Survey* deserves for these achievements will always be unknown. Perhaps the most that can be said is

that, through *The Survey*, generations of social workers and others who cared about the quality of American life were made aware of obstacles to the achievement of the American dream and given faith that overcoming them was a possibility.

Says Chambers:

> If all by itself it (*The Survey*) did not bring about the eight-hour day, or the abolition of child labor, or social security, it was an effective ally in the movements that sought these ends and it served to provoke discussion of these issues among community leaders who counted. It was certainly one vital force, among others, in keeping alive the social action component of social work when many factors operated with contrary tendencies in opposite directions.

Of Paul Kellogg, he says:

> From the beginning of his career until its end... he dedicated himself to making real the promise of opportunity for all human beings—the right of each individual to develop his own latent powers and talents in accord with his own desires and will.... (his) prescience and creativity were exercised in divining new lines of investigation and reporting and in getting to the root of things that mattered most to common people.

AND OF BOTH MAN AND JOURNAL, the historian concludes: "Perhaps it is enough merely to say that the justification lay in the being and the doing."

KATHRYN CLOSE

Does Professional Training Matter?

Helping the Aged: A Field Experiment in Social Work. E. Matilda Goldberg, Ann Mortimer, and Brian T. Williams. George Allen & Unwin, Ltd., 1970, 216 pp., £ 3.25.

AMONG THE ISSUES causing debate and controversy just now in social welfare, one of the first revolves around the role of the social worker. The question for many is what difference professional training makes. *Helping the Aged* contributes to the resolution of this issue through reporting on a comprehensive study concerning social work and its effect on elderly welfare recipients.

The study included 300 aged (minimum 70 years, nearly half over 80) welfare recipients from a London borough, equally divided into an experimental and control group. The experimental group received aid from trained and qualified social workers; those in the control group remained under the care of the agency's regular welfare workers—persons experienced in social work but lacking professional social work training. Data were collected at the beginning of the experiment and 10-1/2 months later. The dropout rate for both groups between the two periods was about 25 percent.

The project involved complex teamwork between various social agencies and researchers, the latter including a social worker, a physician, and a statistician. It was designed to assess the social and medical conditions and needs of elderly welfare recipients, the mesh between recipient needs and services received, and the effectiveness of trained social workers in promoting the welfare of the persons they serve. In particular, the goals and methods of social casework were empirically examined through a controlled field experiment.

The assessment reflects the authors' view that social work action should be guided by empirical facts rather than by strict adherence to certain pet or traditional social work methods. To arrive at "empirical facts," they stress the need to take these steps: measure, categorize, or, at least, describe social work activities; draw up operational definitions of middle-range social work objectives; determine criteria for the relative success or failure of social work; include assessments by objective persons (that is, persons with no stake in the outcome); and include recipients' evaluations of their experience with social work.

The criteria used to measure the effect of social worker activities run from observable variables such as physical environment and physical and social functioning to the recipients' attitudes and feelings such as their opinions about the help the social workers gave them. They include clinical judgments by social workers and medical investigators about the extent and nature of the practical needs of the elderly, degree and type of problems, recipients' contentment, and the like.

The presence of a statistician on the research team is clearly evident in the data analysis, which is detailed and comprehensive. *Helping the Aged* contains not only numerous descriptive statistics about the recipients and the social workers but also makes frequent use of statistical tests to assess the validity of the research findings. However, it does not mention either the tests used or the levels of statistical significance attained.

The authors indicate that trained social workers were beneficial to the elderly persons studied. These

About the reviewers . . .

Miss Close, a freelance writer and editor, was on the editorial staff of *The Survey* (including the *Survey Midmonthly* and the *Survey-Graphic)* from 1938 to 1945 and from 1948 until the journal's end in the spring of 1952. From 1954 to July 1971, she was editor of *Children,* an "interdisciplinary journal for the professions serving children," published by the Children's Bureau, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

Mrs. Lett (a research psychologist) is a social science analyst in the Division of Intramural Research; Office of Research and Demonstrations; Office of Planning, Research, and Training; Social and Rehabilitation Service; U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

workers treated each person individually, effectively mobilizing resources and skill based on accurate perceptions of the relative degree of need among the persons served. Their heightened sensitivity may be attributed to their acting as the "listener," the authors contend.

The results also indicate that trained social workers were beneficial when judged by differences between the experimental and control groups. The differences were particularly marked by the degree to which recipients' morale picked up and the larger number of those served by trained social workers reporting that the workers' visits did them good. The workers' reports of their efforts and the results as reported by recipients or independent assessors were in general agreement.

Yet, for all the results, the authors contend that certain recipients do not need formally trained social workers, especially when the recipients' functioning is not seriously impaired, their morale is good, and they have good support from other persons. About a third of the study sample fell into this "no-need" category.

What was the relative weight of the various influences contributing to the results? The authors admit that it is not possible to say for sure, but they think that the most significant influences were casework methods; recipient-worker relationships; the recipient's personality and life situation; and the social worker's availability, amount of effort, training, skill, and objectives.

The authors recommend that efforts to improve social work take off from the position of seeking wide-ranged but small-scaled improvements and include all related service components in what is done. They favor this position over the opposite one—narrow-ranged, large-scaled efforts.

IN ADDITION TO EMPIRICAL RESEARCH DATA about elderly persons, the book's chief contributions are its statement of philosophical position, general research methodology, and extensive and detailed data analysis. But its scope is narrow. Persons interested in the needs of other groups of people will undoubtedly ask whether the results of this study could be applied to other groups. Within its confines, however, ***Helping the Aged*** is recommended reading for anyone concerned with social work in general or the problems of the elderly in particular, including persons with administrative-policy and research or informational interests.

EVELYN E. LETT

New Publications

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

Publications for which prices are listed may be ordered from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402 (25 percent discount on orders of 100 or more). Payment must accompany order. Single copies of unpriced publications are available from the issuing agency.

SOCIAL AND REHABILITATION SERVICE

National Center for Social Statistics

Applications, cases approved, and cases discontinued for public assistance January-March 1971. Report A-9 (1/3/71), 7 tables. Presents State data on the numbers of applications received, pending, and disposed of, and on cases approved for assistance, January-March 1971.

Findings of the 1971 AFDC study: part I. demographic and program characteristics. Report AFDC-1 (1971), 12 pp. text, 40 tables. Provides demographic and program information on the families who received assistance payments in January 1971.

National cross-tabulations from the 1967 and 1969 AFDC studies. Report AFDC-Special (67-69), December 30, 1971, 59 pp. Provides national cross-tabulations from the 1967 and 1969 studies of families who received aid to families with dependent children.

Public assistance statistics, September 1971. Report A-2 (9/71), 1 p. text, 13 tables. Presents data on services provided to public assistance recipients in September 1971.

Public assistance statistics, October 1971. Report A-2 (10/71), 1 p. text, 13 tables. Presents data on services provided to public assistance recipients in October 1971.

Reasons for discontinuing money payments to public assistance cases, April-June 1971. Report A-11 (4-6/71), 5 tables. Presents data on number of cases for which money payments were discontinued during April-June 1971.

Medical Services Administration

Compilation of Federal requirements for skilled nursing home facilities. Publication No. (SRS) 72-24351, 1971, 49 pp. Describes Federal requirements for skilled nursing home facilities receiving State Medicaid payments under Title XIX of the Social Security Act.

Payment of reasonable charges for prescribed drugs. Publication No. SRS-MSA-196, 1971, 36 pp. Discusses the current policy governing payments for prescription drugs under Medicaid.

Role of a State medical care advisory committee. Publication No. SRS-MSA-195, 1971, 16 pp. Discusses the role of a medical care advisory committee.

Community Services Administration

Report of the national protective services project for older adults. Publication No. (SRS) 72-23008, 1971, 153 pp., $1.25. Describes public programs of protective service for adults and what was learned from experience with them.

SOCIAL SECURITY ADMINISTRATION

Office of Research and Statistics

Assignment rates for supplementary medical insurance claims, January 1968-December 1970, by Charles Waldhauser, Division of Health Insurance Studies. Jan. 10, 1972, report HI-33, 11 pp. Presents quarterly and yearly data on total and net assignment rates for claims received by supplementary medical insurance (SMI) carriers, 1968-70.

Persons with covered hospital stays, 1968, by Robert K. Mitchel, Division of Health Insurance Studies. Dec. 14, 1971, report CMS-16, 19 pp. Presents information about the number of hospital stays in all types of hospitals during 1968.

Supplementary medical insurance: third quarter 1970. Jan. 11, 1972, report CMS-17, 11 pp. Presents highlights of medical insurance data for January to September and for the third quarter of 1970.

Use of medical care under supplementary medical insurance 1967-70, by the Current Medicare Survey Branch based on material developed by Gretchen Wolfe and Maxine Hormats. Feb. 22, 1972, report CMS-19, 21 pp. Compares supplementary medical insurance (SMI) figures for the first 4 years of the Medicare program, 1967-70, and shows monthly charges.

NON-GOVERNMENT

The aging worker and the union: employment and retirement of middle-aged and older workers, by Ewan Clague and others. Praeger Publishers (111 4th Ave., New York, N.Y. 10003), 1971, 144 pp., $12.50. Discusses the policies and practices of organized labor concerning older union workers.

Alcoholism: challenge for social work education, by Herman Krimmel. Council on Social Work Education (345 E. 46th St., New York, N.Y. 10017), 1972, 215 pp., $5. Provides social work students, faculty members, and practitioners with basic information about alcoholism and its treatment and suggests ways in which social workers may be involved constructively in the field.

Behavior therapy with children, by Anthony M. Graziano. Aldine-Atherton Publishers (529 S. Wabash Ave., Chicago, Ill. 60605), 1971, 458 pp., $9.50. Deals with a variety of childhood behavior problems and describes effective therapy.

The black revolt: the civil rights movement, ghetto uprisings, and separatism, Hanes A. Geschwender, ed. Prentice-Hall (Englewood Cliffs, N.J. 07632), 1971, 438 pp., ref. ed. $10.50, $6.95 paperback. Presents readings abstracted from articles by sociologists, psychologists, and political scientists that trace the changing nature of the black revolution from its early nonviolent civil rights stage to the growth of the black power movement, the outbreak of ghetto uprisings, and the growing desire for separatism.

Child and adolescent psychology, a book of readings, Gene R. Medinnus and Ronald C. Johnson, eds. John W. Wiley & Sons, Inc. (605 3d Ave., New York, N.Y. 10016), 1971, 662 pp., $9.95. Discusses contemporary methods of analyzing child development, learning, and psychological patterns.

Children of special value: interracial adoption in America, by David C. Anderson. St. Martin's Press (175 5th Ave., New York, N.Y. 10010), 1971, 183 pp., $6.95. Discusses various aspects and problems of interracial adoption.

Children in urban society: juvenile delinquency in nineteenth-century America, by Joseph M. Hawes. Oxford University Press (1600 Pollitt Dr., Fair Lawn, N.Y. 07410), 1971, 315 pp., $8.50. Gives an account of the treatment of juvenile delinquents in 19th century urban America.

Children's rights: toward the liberation of the child, by Paul Adams and others. Praeger Publishers (111 4th Ave., New York, N.Y. 10003), 1971, 248 pp., $6.95. Lists essays directed toward the idea that only children reared in complete freedom will grow up free from the fears that plague mankind.

Current research in voluntary social and health agencies in New York City: 1971, by Research Department, Community Council of Greater New York. The Council (225 Park Ave., So., New York, N.Y. 10003), 1972, 175 pp., $4. Designed to aid researchers, program planners, and administrators in implementing research findings.

Family planning: readings and case materials, Florence Haselkorn, ed. Council on Social Work Education (345 E. 46th St., New York, N.Y. 10017), 1971, 355 pp., $5. Discusses the developing knowledge in the field of family planning pertinent to social work.

Giving and taking help, by Alan Keith-Lucas. The University of North Carolina Press (Chapel Hill, North Carolina 27514), 1972, 219 pp., $4.50. Describes what happens, or should happen, when two people come together, one to get help, the other to help.

Hansels and Gretels: studies of children in institutions for the mentally retarded, by Dorothea D. Braginski. Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc. (383 Madison, Ave., New York, N.Y., 10017), 1971, 212 pp., $6.95. Reports research findings about the mentally retarded in two State schools and several mental institutions.

Idle Haven: community building among the working-class retired, by Sheila K. Johnson, University of California Press (2223 Fulton St., Berkeley, Calif. 94720), 1971, 208 pp., $6.95. Deals with the mobile home population: white working class retired persons who leave their decaying, and usually racially integrated, urban neighborhoods and move into small communities of mobile-home parks.

International review of research in mental retardation, by Norman R. Ellis. Academic Press (115 5th Ave., New York, N.Y. 10003), 1971, 408 pp., $17. Reviews and interprets current behavioral research in mental retardation.

Movement and spatial awareness in blind children and youth, by Bryant J. Cratty. With a foreword by Leslie Clark. Charles C. Thomas Publisher (301 Lawrence Ave., Springfield, Ill. 62703), 1971, 240 pp., $12. Presents current research findings on the body image of blind children and the way to teach basic spatial orientations with various movement problems; includes information on the way in which blind persons organizes auditory information when moving in their environment.

Poverty and politicization: political socialization in an American subculture, by Herbert Hirsch. Free Press (60 5th Ave., New York, N.Y. 10011), 1971, 206 pp., $8.95. Discusses the process of political learning among children in the poverty subculture of Appalachia.

Poverty in New York, 1783-1825, by Raymond A. Mohl. Oxford University Press (1600 Pollitt Dr., Fair Lawn, N.Y. 07410), 1971, 318 pp., $8.50. Notes the long history of poverty and welfare problems and considers different kinds of public assistance, private welfare, and poverty "cures."

The practice of group work, William Schwartz and Serapio R. Zalba, eds. Columbia University Press (440 W. 110th St., New York, N.Y. 10025), 1971, 284 pp., $10. Social workers give examples of their work and report on group work in public welfare, schools, hospitals, residential child care, foster care, prisons, slums, and other settings.

The prosperity and depression decades, by Thomas J. Ladenburg and Samuel Hugh Brockunier. Hayden Book Co. (116 W. 14th St., New York, N.Y. 10011), 1971, 184 pp., $5.75 hardback, $3.50 paperback. Presents a history of America during the 1920's and 1930's as told by an economist.

Psychiatric aspects of the diagnosis and treatment of mental retardation, Frank J. Menolascino, ed. Special Child Publications, Inc. (4535 Union Bay Place, N.E., Seattle, Wash. 98105), 1972, 386 pp., $6.45. Provides a selective sampling of current psychiatric practices in treating mental retardation.

Severely retarded children: wider horizons, by Dan D'Amelio. Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co. (1300 Alum Creek Dr., Columbus, Ohio 43216), 1971, 134 pp., $4.95. Presents detailed methods for teaching basic academic and motor skills to severely retarded children.

The Silverlake experiment: testing delinquency and community intervention, by LaMar T. Empey and Steven G. Lubeck. Aldine-Atherton Publishers (529 So. Wabash Ave., Chicago, Ill. 60605), 1971, 354 pp., $12.50. Reports results of a 4-year field experiment and compares the results with the traditional institutional method of dealing with delinquent boys.

Soviet social policies, welfare, equality, and community, by Robert J. Osborn. The Dorsey Press (1818 Ridge Rd., Homewood, Ill. 60430), 1971, 294 pp., $5.25. Centers on the basic policies that have shaped urban society in the Soviet Union.

Child welfare. Aid to the aging. Medical assistance. Delinquency prevention. Vocational rehabilitation. Emergency family assistance. Help for the mentally retarded. And more. Here is a new way to see these challenges in bold perspective. With new ideas, facts, and program alternatives. With the tools to help you make your special contribution to a better America. Together in an entirely new kind of magazine. HUMAN NEEDS. A pace-setting monthly magazine for the Nation's fastest-growing field: social and rehabilitative services. HUMAN NEEDS also offers up-to-date listings of career opportunities. Quarterly regional editions tailored to help you where you are. And much more. Produced by the Social and Rehabilitation Service of the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. For your Charter Subscription to the next 12 monthly issues, mail the coupon today.

Some federal programs are too urgent for a conventional magazine

To: Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402
Please enter my one-year subscription to HUMAN NEEDS $3.50 ($4.25 foreign)

Name _____

Address _____

_____

City _____

State _____ Zip _____ Region _____

(Enclose check or money order payable to Superintendent of Documents)

Note Your Region

I Conn, Me, Mass, NH, RI, Vt
II NY, NH, PR, VI
III Del, DC, Md, Pa, Va, WVa
IV Ala, Fla, Ga, Ky, Miss, NC, SC, Tenn
V Ill, Ind, Minn, Mich, O, Wis
VI Ark, La, NM, Ok, Tex
VII Ia, Kan, Mo, Neb
VIII Col, Mont, ND, SD, Utah, Wyo
IX Ariz, Cal, Haw, Nev, Guam, AS
X Ak, Id, Ore, Wash

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, and WELFARE
Social and Rehabilitation Service
WASHINGTON, D.C. 20201

OFFICIAL BUSINESS

POSTAGE AND FEES PAID
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF H.E.W.

March-April 1972
volume 10 number 2

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
Social and Rehabilitation Service